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This publication consists of 16 papers originally prepared for a 1974 conference which was jointly sponsored by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the University of Virginia. The individual papers include "Scene and Context: American Society Today," "Problems and Issues of Staff Development," "Staff Development through Lifetime Education," "Staff Development--Resource Pak for Curriculum Reform," "How Research Helps Staff Development: In Schools and in Big Business," "Action Research for School Improvement," "Visualizing a Staff Development Plan," "Accountability and Staff Development," "On-Site, Inservice Training via Helping Teachers," "Competency-Based Staff Development," "Alternative Elementary Education: Implications for Staff Development," "Public Evaluation--An Overview," "A Graduate Program for Teachers in Educational and Organizational Leadership," "Protocol Materials in Teacher Education," "Decentralization and Staff Development," and "Staff Development: What's to Be Done in the Future?" (JG)

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Edited by
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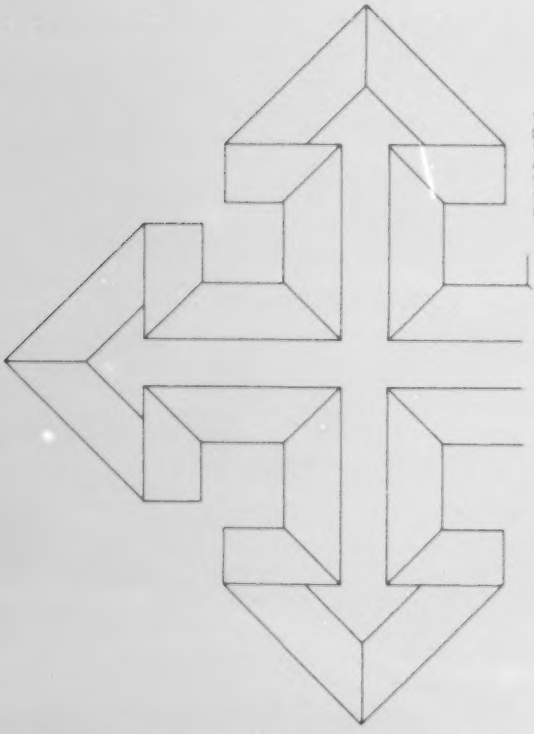

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Foreword

"Do we want to shape things up or to free people up?" Although it is not stated in the usual language of educators, can you think of a question which more accurately states the dilemma in which the entire educational operation finds itself in 1977? Whether we are thinking of institutions or systems or whole societies as the things to be shaped up or children, staff members, or citizens in general as the people to be freed; the question is the same. Which way do we go in education? Is our task one of shaping up or freeing up?

Actually this question is a quotation from the first of a series of papers prepared for a conference on new directions in staff development which was jointly sponsored by ASCD and the University of Virginia and is reported for the first time in this challenging publication. This beginning paper was not a treatise on staff development or any other educational topic but a general look at the society in which all education must take place. Perhaps it is this more generalized context in which the idea was presented which has caused me to see its applicability far beyond the narrow confines of staff development programs. If pursued carefully and adapted creatively it could revolutionize the entire range of staff relationships which have struggled along for so long in the employer-employee pattern.

Returning to its more specific application, however, the papers in this publication address themselves to a variety of ways of conceptualiz-

ing and organizing the staff improvement function. It is not surprising that they are at many different levels of theorizing and practicality. As could be expected they speak to widely diverse needs and situations. Very few readers will be well served by reading the entire publication from cover to cover. Rather, it will serve as a welcome resource to those who are looking for innovative ways to tackle perennial problems or for new suggestions about ways to approach specific situations. Is it staff improvement in a newly decentralized system that concerns you? There are new ideas and suggestions here. Are you interested in developing a relationship between an ongoing action research project or an advanced degree program; in a general staff or curriculum improvement package? The experiences of others can be examined for help. Can a bond be established between professional negotiation and professional improvement? Others have tried and will share their experience.

In all of these varied uses and in others highlighted in these papers, however, it is important to keep in mind the central direction in which the whole is moving. The title Staff Development: Staff Liberation is a good one but it must be understood to mean that all the programs reported or examined and all of the theoretical ideas presented are emphasizing the liberation, freeing, self-actualization, self-growth of individuals as increasingly valid ways of bringing about staff improvement. This direction has been apparent in many of the trends toward improved education for children and youth for over a decade. It is remarkable that this is the first time that an entire publication will focus upon applying these insights to the improvement of teachers as cooperating members of an educational staff.

ELIZABETH S. RANDOLPH, *President, 1977-78*
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

Introduction

In 1974, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development established a Working Group on New Directions in Staff Development. The tasks to be addressed were the following:

1. *Identify what is.*
   Programs and people using new styles and patterns of staff development that relate to:
   a. Curriculum development
   b. Curriculum diffusion
   c. Involvement of teachers in staff development
   d. Educational accountability
   e. Individual development to improve teaching performance in a teacher's current assignment
   f. Individual development to achieve goals related to general and specific professional excellence.
2. *Identify what might be.*
   Conceptual models of staff development that relate to:
   a. Alternatives to the traditional models of schooling
   b. Values and processes consistent with a humanistic concept.
3. *Disseminate information about unique programs.*
   Essential characteristics of exceptional programs that:
   a. Have been implemented
   b. Are in process
   c. Are planned for implementation.

To accomplish these tasks, programs were identified and a regional conference was designed and conducted. The conference, cosponsored by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Department of Administration and Supervision, University of Vir-

ginia, was held in Charlottesville, Virginia, November 24-25, 1974. It provided a forum for the presentation of ideas and dialogue on new styles and patterns of staff development, some related particularly to in-service education on alternatives to the traditional model of schooling.

Highlights of the papers and other material produced for the conference and included in this booklet are as follows:

In "Scene and Context: American Society Today," James Macdonald addresses the concerns of human survival in the generations to come. According to him, the old way of life is unraveling, and we are experiencing a great deal of uncertainty. Basing his thesis largely on Robert Heilbroner's book, *An Inquiry into the Human Prospect*,[1] Macdonald sees two major directions in which we can move to solve the problems of the future: (a) toward a much more highly controlled society, or (b) toward a greatly decentralized community orientation.

Relating these two directions to education, Macdonald raises several questions about staff development. What is our interest in staff development: Do we want to make predictions and control situations? Do we desire to develop the human potential among staff members and students? Do we wish to shape things up or to free people?

"Problems and Issues of Staff Development," as presented by Margaret Labat, stresses the need for staff development of school personnel in order to keep pace with the rapid changes now taking place in society. She notes 15 major questions covering such problems as the identification of the staff, the understandings of the staff in relation to goals of the school systems, and the financing of staff development activities. Included is a brief overview of a staff development program focusing on these problems.

Virgil Ward, in "Staff Development Through Lifetime Education," states that experiential and behavioral capabilities accrue within the life span of a person so that when biopsychological maturity is attained other potentialities emerge. It is assumed that certain deliberate involvements of the person in inquiry and activity are essential to the evocation and fruition of that person's latent potentiality. Likewise, that the balance between general education and professional training is such that, given substantial and positive change in the former, consequent

[1] Robert Heilbroner. *An Inquiry into the Human Prospect*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1974.

changes will occur in the approaches to the improvement of professional competence.

Ward states that, following biopsychological maturity, a person becomes capable of educational responsibility just at the point when his or her direct interaction with the school is terminated. He lists the four disciplines of biology, psychology, sociology, and philosophy as relevant to the developmental point of view. In adulthood, the epistemological orders may be recycled under the assimilative strength of the mature person as experiential orders. This assimilation would be of both substance and process, with twofold effect: (a) a more powerful self-concept, and (b) an increased personal capability and understanding that would contribute to self-control."

In "Staff Development—Resource Pak for Curriculum Reform," Paul Klohr describes a resource pak generated to be used in staff development efforts with individuals and groups. This pak is designed to focus on leadership roles in curriculum reform and to improve the insights and competencies required for leadership. Two large areas are identified to achieve this purpose: one, the need to develop heightened awareness of self and the value gestalts that shape one's life; and the other, the need to make order out of alternative curriculum theories.

Sara C. West examines "How Research Helps Staff Development: In Schools and in Big Business." She states that staff development focuses on upgrading the knowledge and skills of teachers. A brief history of the development of research and theory in management is given to demonstrate how research can be conducted systematically even with many interacting variables, and how the findings of such research can lead to overall improvement. West mentions five problems in education today that need this type of clarification by research because of their overall complexity and the many variables involved. She argues that a need exists to conceptualize research in order to give direction to staff development goals.

Robert S. Fleming, in "Action Research for School Improvement," describes the qualities typical of action research and the potential of action research for improving the curriculum. Teachers must first focus on areas of concern in the classroom; guidelines for identifying such problems are presented in this chapter. After problems are clear and situational factors recognized, the investigator has an opportunity to project solutions to the problems. Fleming feels that the vitality of the

school can be strengthened and competencies of school personnel enhanced through participation in research activities.

Leslee Bishop, in "Visualizing a Staff Development Plan," stresses the fact that, although complex, staff development is a necessary professional responsibility. Visualization requires a translation of deficiencies into program objectives that are affirmative and generative. Staff development should focus attention upon the delivery capabilities of all instructional personnel. Certain events must be achieved to institute a qualitative staff development program, including management tasks; the relating of these tasks to programs and evaluations; and the development of an outline of events to provide a structure for developing specific approaches, instruments, and essential processes. Emphasis is placed on the need for a plan to provide an index to the responsiveness of the school district, the competencies of its professionals, and their commitments to learners.

Callie P. Shingleton, in "Accountability and Staff Development," deals with accountability as related to humanizing staff development. She states that staff development must be a humanistic process; personal encounter and open communications are regarded as invaluable. There should be less emphasis on rigidity and more on developmental, cooperative planning. Ways to release the potential of teachers to humanize staff development are outlined.

Beth Nelson, "On-Site, In-Service Training Via Helping Teachers," describes the role of supervision and the supportive role of helping teachers using systematic, on-site, continuous in-service training for the classroom teacher. The model used was one developed at the elementary school level. Resultant changes attributed to the system are listed and discussed.

David Long, in "Competency-Based Staff Development," identifies learning as the overall goal of staff development. He states that learning is more likely to occur when in-service experiences have meaning for the participants.

He suggests, therefore, that staff development efforts be directed to helping individuals resolve problems they perceive to be relevant to their situation. Five characteristics are outlined as the competency base for the Mt. Airy City Schools: all staff development efforts are focused upon the learner; instructional modules or professional development packets are prepared for each participant relevant to his or her own

unique situation; time is perceived as a variable; developmental activities are field-centered; and emphasis is upon the exit rather than the entrance requirements.

Robert Brinkerhoff outlines the role of the public evaluator in, "Public Evaluation—An Overview." The Evaluation Research Center of the University of Virginia has explored methods by which program evaluation techniques can be applied so as to disseminate school performance information directly to the public. A public information and accountability model is defined to assess and improve school programs. Public evaluation is based on a careful explanation of the school's program plans (intent), followed by progress reports to the public. Of particular applicability to the public sector are the sensitivity and accommodations of this model to differing values.

Frederick Andelman and Charles S. Clayman, "A Graduate Program for Teachers in Educational and Organizational Leadership." Clayman and Andelman report on collaborative efforts in staff development between the Massachusetts Teacher Association and Lesley College. MTA/Lesley is defined as a program in teacher education that seeks to establish new ways of relating university resources to the needs of teachers at the lowest possible cost. Four major areas are identified as requiring attention: organizations and politics, organization development, labor relations, and educational development. Sample course titles, as well as the program organization, are included.

Don Orlosky, in "Protocol Materials in Teacher Education," defines protocol materials as the recordings of events that occur in the classroom or other school-related settings, with "the central component being the record of behavior. The chief purpose of protocols is to give the observer raw behavior to observe and analyze." The focus is on giving instances of behavior portraying selected concepts that enable pre- or in-service teachers to observe, study, and classify behavior.

H. B. Pinkney, in "Decentralization and Staff Development," emphasizes that decentralization and staff development are interdependent. Decentralization that moves most of the decision-making power away from the central office so that more of the important decisions can be made at the area level is stressed. It is suggested that this kind of reorganization is needed to give new impetus to school divisions and

to the instructional programs. With decentralization, the need arises for staff development programs that will prepare personnel for a new or different role or mode of operation.

Larry S. Bowen, in "Alternative Elementary Education: Implications for Staff Development," defines staff development as the processes and procedures by which adult workers in an elementary school are assisted to become more competent in helping children learn. Implications for staff development consist of five major points: teacher recognition of problems and solutions; support by the school leadership for those who wish to act; support by the leadership for teachers who are willing to question and to test out new ideas, provision for reality tests of the efforts of teachers, and philosophical questions by teachers regarding children's needs. Change and staff development are related to the Southeastern Lab School in Hammond, Louisiana.

In his article, "Staff Development: What's To Be Done in the Future?", Roy A. Edelfelt proposes two directions staff development might take. The first alternative is to continue our present, haphazard approach, which allows teachers to synthesize and draw together what they feel is important for themselves. The second alternative presented is the development of a plan based upon the roles teachers assume and the specific competencies needed to ensure better prepared professionals in our schools. Edelfelt does, however, caution that a staff development plan must be examined sufficiently; local adaptations must be made involving all who operate in the system. The staff development model should sketch a general framework, establish context and governance, and recognize the impact of circumstances and conditions. Roles can then be considered within this framework and staff development dealt with cooperatively by all interest groups.

From the preceding résumés, one can see that a variety of approaches toward staff development or staff liberation are reported in the papers that follow. Based on different values and belief systems, these accounts demonstrate the importance now being placed on research in this field.

It is not the desire of the editors to advocate or endorse any one approach but rather to report a number of options. Educators who know what is going on are better prepared to adopt or adapt ideas, or to fashion an original approach to fit a particular situation. If this volume contributes to that end, it will have achieved its purpose.

Chapter 1

SCENE AND CONTEXT: AMERICAN SOCIETY TODAY

James B. Macdonald

IN THIS PAPER I shall try in very global terms to look at American society at four different levels: (a) the world today, (b) the national scene, (c) the organizational/institutional scene, and (d) the individual scene. Then, from what I see forming out of all this, I should like to make some suggestions regarding curriculum design, social change, and staff development.

One of the things that is very clear today is that we have lost our integrative symbols, function, and control mechanisms at these four levels. Everything appears to be coming apart at the seams. As a matter of fact, my feeling about what I am writing could be wrapped up with a comment by a famous Israeli general, who when asked how he saw the situation in Israel, replied, "Well, frankly, it is hopeless but not serious." There is a bit of that in what I am presenting here.

Before moving into the educational implications, let us take a look at some of the background material. During the past few years, I've had the good fortune to listen to talks by a number of so-called futurists and social analysts. As a matter of fact, ASCD has sponsored two conferences on futurism, both of which I have attended. Therefore, what I have to say is not my idea alone; it is based on the ideas of some of the best minds looking into the situation as it exists today.

Heilbroner[1] identifies three major problems that have tremendous

[1] Robert Heilbroner. "Education for Alternative Lifestyles." In: Robert R. Leeper, editor. *Emerging Moral Dimensions in Society: Implications for Schooling*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975. pp. 23-33.

implications for us and with which we have not yet come to grips. One that has been discussed at length is overpopulation, now becoming very critical. There is no indication at this time that Southeast Asia, Latin America, or Africa will have enough food for their people in the near future. Even if these countries should achieve a zero population growth rate by the year 2050, there still will be two and one-half times more people than there are today. And at this point, more than 60 percent of the earth's population is below child-bearing age. The pressures on food can be felt even in our own lives. There is no indication that the so-called green revolution has worked; we have been unable to find technological ways to produce more food. Heilbroner thinks the result will be world chaos and that many nations may come under socialist military governments. This could have very grave implications for us.

The second thing he notes is the dramatic shift in world power. Several examples will illustrate this—one, the fact that all small countries now have the nuclear capacity to produce bombs. This, of course, shifts the balance of power, because if a nation has a nuclear capacity, its size does not matter very much. A related problem is the expanding pressure on resources such as oil and metals. We have already felt the effect of this. For example, the profit of the Arab nations on oil last year was something like $50 billion. This, of course, has almost overnight shifted a great deal of power to sectors to which we have hitherto not given much thought.

The third problem is our environmental overload, which according to Heilbroner, is growing exponentially. If our industrialization maintains its present rate of growth, it will have so raised the temperature of the world by 2050 that the climate will be changed to such an extent we may experience natural catastrophes. Unless we can deindustrialize and the nonindustrialized countries will settle for less industrialization than they now aspire to, there will be tremendous problems of distribution between and within countries, with great shifts in the balance of world power as the "have-not" nations move over into the ranks of the "have."

At the national level, many of the problems we are facing today are connected to the world situation. We have a crisis in leadership. Watergate has done a great deal of damage, the extent of which may not be determined for years. We have lost the confidence of many people in the world. We are supposed to make democracy work, and

yet a great number of our people are apathetic and unaware of what is going on. This can spell trouble for any democracy.

And, of course, we are suffering inflation, unemployment, and dollar devaluation. These are symptoms of a deeper malaise. We are just beginning to realize that we have institutionalized poverty, that there is a real class system and class structure in our society. We have not wanted to face this fact before and the realization is a shock to us. On top of all this, there is a need to slow down the economy. In the past, when we had economic troubles, the answer was to increase and stimulate production, but this is no longer a viable solution.

At the organizational/institutional level, people have lost their sense of sureness about organizational and institutional goals. They are no longer even sure that education is a good thing. In fact, there are some, like Illich,[2] who say that schools are harmful. There is a loss of faith in many of the activities we engage in. Instead of trying to identify the problem and correct it, we respond by rigidifying situations bureaucratically. The alienation we feel in our lives can be detected in a sense of powerlessness, apathy, and meaninglessness. There has been a loss of value in work and life.

To summarize, at all these levels there is an unraveling of the old way of life. There is a great deal of uncertainty. Material affluence is decreasing and will probably continue to decrease. When millions are starving, 5 percent of the world's population cannot continue to use 30 percent of its resources. People throughout the world are aspiring to a better life. We can feel that stirring now, and we find it unsettling. We used to worry about how to effect change, now we are worried that we may not be able to tolerate or keep up with the changes that may very well come.

According to the futurists, there are two major directions in which we can move to solve our problems. First, we could move toward a much more highly controlled society, probably a kind of state capitalism, such as existed in Nazi Germany. A charismatic leader could gain control and try to direct the allocation of resources. The second alternative is a greatly decentralized community, organized under a broadly federated structure for survival purposes. In this type of society, people could develop community participation, with a shift of values to interpersonal relationships and emphasis on people rather than the accumu-

[2] Ivan Illich. *Deschooling Society*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1971.

lation of goods. In this way, we might possibly become a person-oriented rather than a material-oriented society. These two directions can already be detected in social phenomena such as the counter-culture movement.

These two directions can also be seen in education. We may have been rehearsing for the future without knowing it. For instance, (a) instructional systems, performance contracting, behavioral objectives, accountability, teacher competencies, performance-based teacher education, etc.—all of these are well in motion in education today; (b) open spaces, interest centers, team teaching, nongrading, student choice—these, too, are already in our schools. We are being pressured in two directions and can move either way.

There are at least six major criticisms leveled at the schools today. One, which began early in the century and is still continuing, is that we are not efficient or effective enough. A second is that the schools are middle-class, white institutions. Considerable data exist to show that middle-class students do better than minority students. Our discipline problems supposedly stem from uncouth lower-class youngsters. Attention is now being paid to bias in our textbooks. Accordingly, we are accused of being a single-class, single-race oriented school that loads the dice against lower social-class and minority children. The third criticism is that we are a self-serving bureaucracy, that is, we have displaced goals. Instead of getting down to achieving our educational goals, we set other goals for ourselves with which we feel more comfortable.

A fourth criticism is that the schools cannot really be blamed for anything since they merely reflect the same problems seen in all our social institutions. Therefore, any criticism of the school is a criticism of the total society. A fifth is that we are tools of the military-industrial system in society. That is to say, our response to student rights seems to indicate we are a bit afraid to grant human rights to students. We are in favor of career education and of shaping attitudes. Interesting data exist to prove the only distinction in work performance between high school dropouts and nondropouts is that nondropouts are absent and tardy less often. As far as competencies are concerned, there does not appear to be much difference.

The sixth criticism is that the trouble lies with the students rather than the teachers. Today's children have grown up in a postnuclear world, as most of us did not, and they are very conscious of the fact that oblivion may come at any moment. They also live with television

in a multimedia culture that has affected them in ways we do not understand. Margaret Mead makes an interesting point about the generation gap. *Gap* is French for ditch, and her argument is that the young will never be like us.

All these criticisms can be condensed into two questions: Is the business of the school education or training? Are we person-oriented in the schools, or are we doing a job for society?

What Is Our Interest in Staff Development?

As school people, we seek knowledge. We are interested in helping ourselves, improving the situation, learning something. It is very important to realize that our knowledge is interest-based. There is no such thing as interest-free knowledge. That is to say, even to ask a question or to shape an hypothesis, you have to have an interest in something that precedes the knowledge and that is not based in the knowledge itself. What we have to ask ourselves is what our interest is in staff development. Do we want to make predictions and control situations? This is the fascist direction. Or do we want to try to help develop the human potential among staff and students? These are our main options, and they are not mutually exclusive. As with all differences, they reflect different values and interest bases.

I think we have to ask ourselves what we want to know about staff development. Do we want to shape things up, or do we want to free people? Where do we look for guidance in selecting our knowledge? We have two options: we can look at society to tell us what we should be doing in the schools, or we can look at human nature and individual potential. Again, these are not mutually exclusive, but in our thinking, they do tend to get pretty well loaded in one direction or the other.

These decisions about where we get our knowledge, how we get it, and what it is based on fall into two patterns. Where you have a control interest, a society orientation, with the focus on school as a place of work with citizenship training, you have fascist schooling. Where you have development of human potential, with the emphasis on individual needs and interests, you have liberation schooling. This may be a little simplistic, but it is important to make the distinction that at each of these levels there is a different trend of thought.

Our options for the schools, then, are either socialization designs

or liberation designs. You may wonder about the use of the term "liberation." Why not a developmental design? Liberation means to free a person to become someone, to become an active agent in the world. It carries the implication of continuous cultural change and even unpredictable and unknown outcomes for persons as they are in the process of change. Development, on the other hand, has the possibility of becoming what the Latin Americans call developmentalism, which suggests that we know what the end point is for all people who are developing. It also lends itself to defining people as underdeveloped or culturally deprived. In other words, when we talk about development, we remain embedded in a controlled structure. There is a danger in this. The basic question here involves society and the curriculum. What does development mean? Does it mean control over shaping everyone's competencies in a school? Or does it mean freeing people to become something we cannot predetermine? It seems to me that the term "staff liberation" would be preferable to "staff development."

Staff development takes place in two major arenas. Either we work on consciousness or the understandings of staff people (their view of education, their personal meanings, how they see teaching and learning, etc.) or we change the social structure of the school and try to change others through the social structure. In other words, there are two major approaches to staff development: change the mindset of the individual or change the social structure. In either case, one follows from the other.

The staff development movement reflects an awareness of the problem of working solely on consciousness, as universities have done. This is why schools are moving into staff development by working over the minds of teachers. And of course, universities have no power to change social structure in the school. Therefore, they have to change the mindsets, and the social structure is expected to follow along. However, at the school level, part of staff development seems to involve a great deal of tinkering with social change, with no dramatic results. So I am assuming that staff development is a better way of saying that there is a kind of dialectic going on between consciousness and the social structure of the schools. That is, in traditional terms, the purpose of staff development is to help the faculty bridge the gap between theory and practice. Perhaps this is why staff development as a term appears to supplant in-service. But unless we can set in motion a dynamic process or dialogue between our growing staff consciousness and the

changing, evolving social structures in the schools, the hope of bringing theory and practice together is going to remain just that—a hope. It seems to me that staff development, if it is to work at all, must be social and cultural change, that is, change in the consciousness of teachers and in the social structure of the school.

One might look upon staff developers as scholars-in-residence in the schools. Perhaps this is part of the role. We could also draw on our rational knowledge of the techniques of group dynamics. However, unless the staff reflects critically upon its level of consciousness and its effect on changing social structures in the school, it seems highly doubtful that the staff will be liberated for continuous cultural growth or that lasting changes will occur. We can force people to do things, but if we simply assign roles and slot people into certain procedures in a new program or curriculum, the results are not likely to be what we anticipate. The only real hope of fundamental change is through the growing liberation of the staff and the students together.

Thus, staff developers, as newly defined change agents of schools, will have to realize they are making social policy and not simply applying techniques to problems. If the future is to include one of the alternatives discussed earlier, the staff development design must reflect one of these basic options: we must operate either from a control orientation or from a liberating orientation. In my view, the liberating orientation is the only hope for real change.

William Thompson, a cultural historian, talks about the future as an imaginative way of dealing with the present.[3] What he means is that we have no access to the future, we only think we know the past, and we even have to imagine the present. I think staff developers are going to have to get their imagination going about what the present really is and to deal with it, not in terms of the past but with some hope for what kind of future they want. I think we must commit ourselves to a future. Thompson also feels that a new cultural consciousness is arising, broader than that of institutions. This is probably true, and we should be able to relate to this consciousness. If we want to tie into liberation, we have plenty of outside cultural influences that are not institution-bound (the women's movement, the black movement, the student movement). Throughout the whole of society, we can relate to a broader entity that is a liberating cultural consciousness. In

[3] William Irwin Thompson. "Lindisfarne: Education for a Planetary Culture." In: Robert R. Leeper, editor, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-67.

the past, we have been seduced by affluence. Perhaps we are about to enter a more enlightened era.

The times we are approaching will be difficult, but they are also potentially very promising because we have a chance to unload some of the excess baggage we have been dragging around for a long time. If we can sort out our values and take advantage of the inevitable social and cultural unraveling that will accompany decreased material wealth, we have a very real opportunity to move schools toward the humanistic goals we have talked about for so many years.

Chapter 2

PROBLEMS AND ISSUES OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Margaret G. Labat

STAFF DEVELOPMENT for school personnel is a must if schools are to keep pace with the rapid changes now taking place in our society and thus maintain themselves as contributing institutions. According to Matthew Miles, perhaps the only really essential feature of any elementary or secondary school is that it is a social arrangement existing for the purpose of bringing about desirable changes in children,[1] who by virtue of the compulsory school attendance law must attend schools. These children, who are products of families, neighborhoods, and communities, also interact with a number of other social agencies that have programs similarly designed to bring about change.

An awareness of the need for the school to function as an integral part of the community led us to the recognition that the task of the school cannot be accomplished in isolation from the total community. It seems, therefore, that one of the fundamental issues of staff development is related to what the staff is expected to accomplish, how these expectations are to be achieved, and how to assess the situation in order to determine what progress has been made.

In the District of Columbia Public School System, the Board of Education has accepted, as one of the goals for the system, decentralization through PACTS, a means of making possible equal access to

[1] Matthew B. Miles. "Some Properties of Schools as Social Systems." *Change in School Systems.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Training Laboratories, 1967.

educational opportunities for its students. PACTS stands for Parents, Administrators, Community representatives, Teachers, and Students working together to achieve objectives.

Decentralization is:

1. Restructuring the school system so that schools become more responsive to the needs and characteristics of each student in the teaching-learning situation.

2. Facilitating a more effective and efficiently operated school system by the establishment of smaller and more manageable administrative units for both the administrators and the recipients of the schools' services.

3. Establishing effective channels of communication and better working relationships among parents, administrators, community representatives, teachers, and students in their local communities, thus enriching the educational advantages that will accrue.[2]

Staff development is accepted as a prerequisite to decentralization through PACTS and as an integral aspect of the organizational change effort. Some of the problems and issues relating to staff development are:

1. Who comprises the staff?

2. To what degree have the goals of the school system been understood?

3. Based on school system goals, what is the staff expected to accomplish?

4. What skills and competencies need to be developed in the staff, individually and collectively, based on what it is expected to accomplish?

5. How will the appropriate staff development activities be generated?

6. Will the activities be planned and developed by parents, administrators, community representatives, teachers, and students?

7. Will the planning and implementation phase represent a collaborative effort in which the university is perceived to be a part of the community either at the local or national level?

[2] District of Columbia Public Schools. *The Superintendent's 120-Day Report.* Washington, D.C.: Board of Education, 1974.

8. How will staff development activities be financed?

9. Will the activities be carried out during the school day, over weekends, or after school?

10. Under what conditions will staff receive financial compensation, such as stipends and/or college or university tuition-free credits?

11. Under what conditions will in-service credits be given?

12. Will credits earned through staff development be accepted as a part of the certification process?

13. Should staff development activities be conducted in the local school, in the community, or on the college or university campus?

14. Under what conditions should the peer instruction model be utilized by a school system?

15. What is the role of the local school, the regional office, and the central office in staff development?

Having raised some of the fundamental questions that must be considered in the implementation of staff development activities and programs, let me present a brief overview of the summer 1974 staff development effort in the District of Columbia Public Schools. The Superintendent of Schools, Barbara A. Sizemore, requested a reprogramming of monies from other sources to address the pressing need for staff development prior to the implementation of decentralization. A task force, whose composition was that of PACTS, was established to develop the overall design for the program.

Basic decisions were that summer workshops would be developed around understanding the goals of the system, developing skills, and acquiring knowledge relative to the goals. On the basis of input from members of the task force and results from a needs assessment, the decision was made to develop separate programs for teachers, clerical personnel, community school aides, principals and other administrators, and students.

College or university credit was provided for all professional participants in order that persons who needed credit hours to qualify for positions as resource teachers in critical areas where there were teacher shortages, such as mathematics and science, might be appointed to those positions at the beginning of the school year. Persons who needed credits to move from temporary to probationary status in these

subject areas, as well as in the areas of reading, music, and art, were provided the opportunity to earn them.

Six field-based centers were established as training sites, with one center located in each of the six regions, as delineated by the decentralization plan. Staff, coordinated into an instructional team model for each of the centers, was selected from among qualified persons in the school system and from participating universities. The intent of this design was to make possible a more realistic staffing pattern to provide opportunities for successful teachers to enhance their contributions to the school system, develop a sense of appreciation for their own capabilities, and reward them for excellent performance in the classroom.

Participants in the skills centers represented teams of teachers from schools (pre K-12) in the region. Teams were selected by the local school principal in conjunction with the local school chapter advisory committee of the Washington Teachers Union. Thus, the opportunity was provided for improving articulation among all school levels and for forming a basis for the multiplier effect. Each team, when returning to the local school at the end of the program, was to become a critical component of the staff development team or the local school education committee. In the more than 20 different programs forming components of the total design, approximately 1,800 school employees were provided with training opportunities.

Evaluation was included as a critical aspect of each specific program. Although we were encouraged by the results of each evaluation, we are even more enthusiastic about the variety of staff development activities being generated at the local school and regional levels. This implies that there is adequate follow-up on the summer staff development effort.

Chapter 3

STAFF DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LIFETIME EDUCATION

Virgil S. Ward

THIS PAPER ATTEMPTS an indirect approach to the problem of staff development. It suggests that both the general education and the specialized training for the education professions are quite deficient. Because of this, in spite of the vigorous and imaginative efforts of professional leaders and theorists, the desired degree of change is not likely to be achieved. However, strategic changes in general education that affect both the community and the teacher and administrator should provide for corresponding changes in the efforts to improve the professional competencies of educators.

General Education and Professional Competence

The nature of general education, which for prospective teachers becomes at some point directed toward professional training, makes specialized preparation desirable both at the preservice and continuing levels. The substance of the developmental experience to be proposed as general education in adulthood contributes toward personal autonomy for all individuals entering into the adult phase of life. The educator's professional role adds specifically to the requirements of this autonomy, thereby providing an opportunity to see if greater degrees of personal development might not serve to change both the need and the process of continuing efforts toward the improvement of professional functioning.

One must both take a certain liberty and assume a certain responsibility in addressing the continued development of the teacher as a person rather than as a professional practitioner. The liberty is forced upon one out of a deep conviction that the devastating criticism leveled at the American school for the past two decades has not as yet been convincingly turned to positive account, and as a consequence, the efforts of leaders to improve the professional skills of teachers in service have been at best only minimally effective. The responsibility lies in the need to make a convincing case for the proposed lines of adult development through education. This, in turn, rests upon whether the theory presented here comprises a sufficiently deep structural change in the nature of general education, which if not immediately acceptable to all will at least appear reasonable to most.

Of the assumptions in this presentation, perhaps only one needs to be specifically explained, that is, that there are, in fact, additional experiential and behavioral capabilities accruing within our life span such that when biopsychological maturity is attained other dimensions of our potentiality emerge. These latent personal capacities do not unfold spontaneously because of the attainment of organic and mental maturity, but as in childhood, they require certain deliberate involvements of the person in inquiry and activity.

Are these views of adult potentiality and of educative processes intended toward their development convincing to professional leaders? Will professionally trained individuals who continue personal development along the indicated lines transfer the power of the educationally autonomous educator—the end state in personal development toward which the continuing general education will be directed—from psychological structure to specific tasks required within the education professions? Though conclusive resolutions of these questions must derive from empirical investigation, the effort here is to lay down the ideal/hypothetical framework which, if actualized, may be the subject of such eventual testing.

The author's own formulations comprise the principal theoretical framework for this presentation.[1] Since neither the substance of general education during the period of adulthood nor the interface between general personal development and professional competence has previously been treated, this paper is cast as an heuristic essay, exploring and

[1] Virgil Ward. "Lifetime Education: Theory and Systems." Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1964. (Unpublished.)

mapping an approach that appears to follow from the predicate theory rather than delineating a previously established body of thought. References therefore will be few and general, principally an occasional identification of some well known position by a major writer that appears to be in line with some thread of thought presented here.

Theoretical Background

Certain precepts and principles from "lifetime education" provide the base for these proposals of a more powerful general education to continue throughout the life span. Although not all the criticism directed against the American school has been responsible, such criticism does underscore the need for some fundamental changes in public education. The present theory of adult development is an attempt to round out a concept of lifetime education that, to some extent at least, will incorporate the radical changes perceived to be necessary.

Lifetime education, therefore, is a comprehensive theory for the practice of general education designed for the strategic reformation of educational practices that, in the view of serious critics, have grown ineffectual and obsolescent. Nothing less than a fundamental reconstruction of the whole educational enterprise is likely to lift the educative process out of the restrictive confines of particular culture patterns and provide a promising base for a new education for a new world.

This designed change in general education is postulated in a context that (a) proposes a base for educational practice in educational theory, useful to student and teacher alike, that subsumes teacher-oriented theories of learning and instruction; (b) elevates the person to central position in role and responsibility; (c) concentrates institutional resources on the development of human potential; (d) relates the educative process functionally to the full range of experiential and behavioral capability; (e) provides for the development of philosophic mindedness and scientific inquiry as distinct from acquiring a store of specific information; and (f) requires for the full course of education the continued development of the person through distinguishable, sequential, and cumulative experiences at successive phases of the life span from infancy to age.

The following assertions provide a framework within which the educative process is viewed as qualitatively different in each of the transitional periods into which the life span is divided:

1. That the entire life span, as distinct from childhood and youth, is the proper period for the process of education

2. That all knowledge, as distinct from selected segments of knowledge, comprises the proper substance of education

3. That training and facilitation preparation for education, as distinct from its actualization, is the proper function of the scholastic institution; and that within this role:

a. Training for self-management in all main areas of experiential potentiality should be the institutional objective for childhood and youth, with instructional principles and practices, curricular content, and material facilities conceived and directed accordingly

b. Supportive facilitation, required services for the essentially independent pursuit by individual and peer group of any and all knowledge of interest, should be the institutional function during adulthood.

4. That education, as distinct from preparation for education, is the proper function of the individual among his/her peers at every age beyond childhood throughout the life career.

Reconceptualization of Adult Education

It must now be ascertained whether these perspectives for lifetime education lead to a view of general education during adulthood that differs from prevailing views, and if so, whether or not they are supportable.

Two concepts have emerged around which a more fitting plan of adult education may be worked out. The first relates to the now familiar idea that human development, and not the acquisition of information through instruction, is the proper objective of general education. The second, arising out of this emphasis on development, is that the sociocultural involvement required in the fulfillment of human existence be postulated as a form of species potentiality that becomes functionally significant with the initiation of adulthood. The development of this latent adult capability underlies the quest for the substance and experiences that comprise adult education.

The Developmentalist's View of Education. The question now is whether these overarching features of the general theory lend them-

selves acceptably to constructive applications in the adult phase of the life span. This challenge is a requisite for an important feature of the theory and system, namely, that qualitative changes are possible in the nature of the experience at each phase and that these differences are consistent and coherent in conceptual foundations from the period of human infancy.

The first theoretical mandate to be briefly explored is that of the substitution of human development as the direct objective of educational practice (Plato, Dewey, Piaget, Kohlberg), as distinct from the direct acquisition of segments of information from organized bodies of knowledge through instruction on the part of the teacher and study on the part of the learner.

Brief and suggestive indications of the differences were given in a recent paper,[2] in which it was observed that current literature bearing upon the teacher's responsibilities at the elementary and middle school levels seemed virtually to depict the traditional functioning role of counselors. The objectives of the counselor, on the other hand, traditionally imbedded in the affective domain, are certainly concerned today with the cognitive factors that supposedly dominate the conventional classroom. Such ideas as Lazarus' "cognitive restructuring" and "learning centers as counseling resources" have come to loom quite large in the literature of counselor education, as though learning and development have indeed become the counselor's responsibility. In this context, it is proposed that the more appropriate role of the practicing educator would be that of developmentalist functioning along the lines of group counseling rather than of instructor teaching children and youth largely what they themselves can learn with little external direction from adults.

This obsession of the school with learning per se extends also into adult education. One of the most pervasive traditional educational assumptions is that childhood schooling prepares for a lifetime of effective living, with choice and action during adulthood based upon the values somehow supposed to emerge concomitantly with the child's learning and living in the school environment. A further presumption is that continuing education will comprise a different process, certainly more autonomous, reflecting the increased intellectual stature symbolized in a degree from an institution of higher learning. Fact, however, appears to contradict this assumption. Persons who have studied mainly

[2] Virgil Ward. "Teacher and Counselor: Role Integration in a Developmental Perspective." Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1976. (Unpublished.)

what has been taught often require further teaching, with largely indistinguishable differences in either process or product between child and adult.

Learning, as practiced in the typical curricular process and institutional program, actually involves only the simpler orders of cognitive potentiality, that is, perceptual behaviors in which the immature person can engage with observable results conceived of as educational. Any learning habits that accrue from such activity must be labeled as bad from the developmentalist's point of view. These simpler forms of cognitive assimilation and personality development simply do not intermesh with experience that could be more productive in the higher development of which the individual is capable.

This schism between what is hoped for and what occurs is all the more regrettable since it is so unnecessary. The developmental view, anchored in the concept of a parallelism between emergent potentiality and the experience that educes that potentiality, calls for process differences during each phase in the life span so as to provide for the full development of the whole person.

The Sociocultural Phenomenon as Development Potential. The second of the instrumental concepts that have proved useful in this effort to reconceptualize the phenomenon of education for the adult depends upon the utilization of the perspectives out of which development per se is given priority over learning as an educational objective. A developmental view of education simply requires the identification and use of potentiality and a proper school curriculum related as closely as possible to the development of that potentiality.

The American pattern of schooling appears to have evolved around a certain approach to and concept of potentiality that manifests itself most clearly in the periods of infancy, childhood, and adolescence. The nature of this general growth dynamic is, of course, biological, with the observable organic changes accompanied by psychological changes as well. This biopsychological designation is quite familiar in the literature of the developmental sciences and in educational thought. But the magnitude of positive growth changes occurring on this directional dynamic appears to lessen so markedly during the lengthy phase of life between youth and old age that adulthood is usually conceived of as a period of stability within the newly and more or less fully matured member of the species. Certainly these changes have not been thought

of as requiring further school services, and to those critics who consider institutional offerings to the volunteer learner to be senselessly diverse, the loss of one cohesive force without the valid substitution of another would seem to call for considerable explanation. The direct postulation of another form of potentiality seems then to be required.

Given these considerations with respect to condition and need, an idea fairly important in anthropological and sociological thought gained prominence. Observing as they have the very low probability that a newborn infant could survive within an environment not immediately responsive to its subsistence requirements without adult care, social scientists allow themselves a semantic transition to the proposition that human beings are social animals. This postulate paves the way for an abundant body of thought and language dealing with acculturation and opens to reasoned inquiry the origin and etiology of cultural diversity and of the possibilities and limitations that lie within various forms of social intervention in the life experience of the person at any and all ages. Now if we remain at all within the conventions of logic and language available to the educator, we may take but a quarter of a turn intellectually to realign this scientific postulate into the developmentally consequential form of a sociocultural potentiality.

The particular forms of experience that appear to follow from these semantic predicates and logical processes must also, of course, be defensible as reasoned projections. However, at this point, they can be only suggestive rather than exhaustive of a larger domain that, it is hoped, will be provocative of further thought along the same rational parameters.

The Substantive Nature of Adult Development

Adult Development Through the Internalization of the Life and Social Sciences. Biology, psychology, and sociology, as life and/or social sciences, are conventionally employed in the schooling of youth through the study of these disciplines by the teacher. This use may be thought of as indirect, objective, or impersonal and as comprising externa through which the young are directed by their parents and teachers toward biological and psychological maturity. Each of these organized segments of knowledge, however, internalized in the experience of the mature individual largely under voluntarily initiated and autonomous conditions, comprises the first of two lines of experience through which the

latent potential of the adult (sociocultural) may be evoked and advanced. The educational consequence is greater understanding, objectification, and control, with consequent positive manifestations in the preclusion of certain behavioral aberrations that appear to be increasing in frequency.

We refer to the further usage of this body of knowledge under the largely independent and private direction of each adult person as an autonomous recycling of these familiar disciplines. Bruner, Phenix, and Polanyi have each ably advanced the idea that certain areas of knowledge are productive only when the information becomes deeply personalized. Numerous facets of Dewey's thought support this idea. It would seem, then, that the autonomous recycling of these disciplines should comprise one of the two major substantive concentrations for the continuation of general education into and through the period of adulthood.

Knowledge of biology, physiology, and the health sciences acquired after physical maturity with the personalization objective openly pursued, should help us regain something of the classic appreciation for the material person, and through this consciousness of viewpoint and enhanced self-control, help to eliminate the distortions now so apparent. The end effect is similar for both psychology and sociology. Currently, massive efforts are made in an after-the-fact fashion to direct people to live creatively as persons and to overcome a psychological malaise. It would seem that a prior and positive developmental force is clearly indicated.

Philosophic Inquiry as Developmental Experience. The substance of general philosophy, once assumed to be the unquestioned goal toward which educational experience was directed, has become virtually divorced from the curriculum of the American school. But philosophy in its true form is not for the immature mind of the child; hence, the necessity that education continue throughout life as a means of incorporating this body of human thought into the life-span experience of the individual. Even the most elemental understanding of this powerfully relevant discipline should give to the average citizen a bit of freedom from what has been termed the "ignorance of certainty" in today's changing human condition.

Philosophy had its origins in the imaginative capability of the primitive mind to deal with anxiety and wonder. This early preoccupation with things experienced and things dreamed of gave way in time

to organized responses, deliberate behaviors, and rudimentary rules that over eons of time led to introspective inquiry. The complexities of contemporary civilization have emanated from these simple origins. Some of the proudest names in human history have earned their place through contributions to the intellectual advance of philosophic thought. The restoration of this classic body of knowledge to a reconceptualized pattern of contemporary education would appear to be easy and unremarkable. The projection from thought to action, however, is likely to stir up a flurry at the level of institutional and community life. A proper line of disclosure relating to this or any other theory is first to set the ideational structure into whole form and then to identify the practical requirements.

The subtle but essential further requisite for a properly humanistic education appears to be served in the general and abstract form of philosophic reflection, that is, its aloofness from prescriptive social and political essence. Only through this latter character, formal power without substantive prescription, can the more fundamental freedoms for personal conviction, thought, and action be preserved; and only in these freedoms do we find appropriate justification for the life-span pursuit of understanding and personal control of circumstance.

Put starkly, the argument is that people are not completely human, not accomplished in ways that represent membership in the highest form of animate existence until they join the quest after essentially social understandings and make the effort to contribute to the accumulation of human culture from which they themselves draw the substance that lifts them beyond elemental material existence. The search for philosophic understanding (Burtt) is a necessary means for opening up this half century to the richer potentialities of human experience. Even though the philosophic quest is of such nature that only the intellectual giants can aspire to its attainment in high degree, common people can and should undertake a search for the knowledge in which even modest attainments can make for such significant differences in human affairs.

Developmental Autonomy and Professional Competence

In pursuing this indirect approach to the examination of adult learning in the context of a continuing advancement of role performance in the education professions, certain precepts from a prepared plan for general education were set forth as predicate values.

The first emergent constructs were instrumental in nature: (a) direct elevation of development over learning as an educational objective, and (b) the turning of the sociocultural phenomenon of an individual in human culture toward the directive and consequential construct of a species potential.

These instrumental dynamics led to two substantive proposals, suggestive but not exhaustive of the newer plane of abstraction: (a) the deeply personal integration of certain familiar life and developmental sciences within the newly emergent capability for social fulfillment, and (b) the self-rectifying insights and regenerative processes of general philosophy.

In this professional context, the originally stated inquiries can be summed up in one question: Given the transformed objectives and processes of education in general leading toward educational autonomy on the part of all normal adult persons, including teachers, what kinds of peer-level and leadership-inspired activities would comprise constructive continuations of developmental experience for the adult practitioner within the education professions?

Chapter 4

STAFF DEVELOPMENT—RESOURCE PAK FOR CURRICULUM REFORM*

Paul Klohr

A BASIC UNDERLYING ASSUMPTION is that curriculum reform has not been effective because the concepts giving direction to typical proposals for curriculum change have been locked into and constrained by the so-called conventional wisdom of the curriculum development field. Therefore, different (and at this stage, heuristic) conceptual structures must be developed and tested out. From such testing, fresh questions can be identified and more adequate hypotheses can follow, resulting in improved practice.

In effect, educational leaders at the local level are challenged to take on the responsibility for generating the conceptual base, or theory, to guide their curriculum reform efforts. To take such responsibility involves a difficult shift in roles from that of consumer to that of producer, to use Ross Mooney's terms. As educators, we feel uncomfortable and inept in making this shift, for we have always assumed that theory was being generated somewhere else or in some other field and that our major leadership role was one of applying it to our situation. We are now required to become participant-observers in a theory-generation-into-practice-into-theory-into-practice system of operations.

The resource pak presented here centers on two large areas of need if staff development programs are to help individuals and groups

* These materials were generated to be used in staff development efforts with individuals and groups to focus on leadership roles in curriculum reform.

develop the insights and competencies required for leadership in this redefined role:

1. The need to develop heightened awareness of self and the value gestalts that shape one's life.

2. The need to make order out of alternative curriculum theories.

To be sure, there are other needs that must be recognized and met in curriculum reform. The need for practical knowledge about curriculum development techniques and strategies is basic. Too, a curriculum change agent must know how to assess and foster support both within the school system and in the immediate and wider community. Each of us could add to this list of needed competencies. However, the position taken here is that all of these competencies and the knowledge out of which they grow will not bring about curriculum reform unless the two basic needs brought into focus here are met.

Heightened Awareness of Self

So much has been written and said about the need for more adequate or fuller understanding of self that little more seems necessary. But how to foster such self-awareness remains a major problem. The proposals range all the way from I'm O.K.—You're O.K. exercises through sophisticated Zen journeys that take years to travel. A bulletin of offerings from Esalen suggests something of the range of attempts to help individuals discipline themselves to grow toward higher levels of self-actualization. An examination of the numerous self-help services offered in metropolitan New York through advertisements in *The Village Voice* is further evidence of the diversity of approaches available.

One especially effective approach to developing an awareness of self and forcing one to see how he or she perceives reality is the visual demonstrations developed first by Adelbert Ames, Jr., at Hanover Eye Institute and used by psychologists, such as Gordon Allport and Hadley Cantril, and by educators, such as Ross Mooney, Earl Kelley, and Marie Rasey. These demonstrations have been reproduced in several institutions, for example, the Ohio State University and the Curry Memorial School of Education at the University of Virginia where Professor Charles Beegle is making effective use of perception phenomena to help others gain insight into their views of self and reality. The pinpoint of

light demonstration, the trapezoidal window, and the distorted room are all examples of these demonstrations.

The classic Gestalt Therapy volume, published originally in 1958 and recently reprinted,[1] has eleven experiments designed to help individuals gain insight into themselves. William C. Schultz[2] proposes typical consciousness-expanding exercises. And, of course, the human relations training efforts, dating back to the founding of the Bethel, Maine, Center of the National Training Laboratory, continue. The three handbooks prepared by J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones[3] are especially useful in probing this dimension of need in staff development programs. However, a simple procedure, using short pieces of creative writing that are value laden may prove to be equally effective. An example is a short stream-of-consciousness piece by Donald Barthelme,[4] which was used at the Regional ASCD Conference at the University of Virginia, November 25, 1974, as a demonstration.

A new body of literature now developing in support of this emerging foundational base for curriculum theory and practice is being referred to as the "reconceptualist" view. A good example of this is a report of the University of Rochester Curriculum Theory Conference, edited by William Pinar.[5] *Curriculum Theorizing*, also edited by Pinar,[6] is an excellent collection of essays within this framework.

Two other conferences—a curriculum theory conference held at Xavier University in October 1974 and one at the University of Virginia in 1975—were also addressed to the reconceptualist approach. At the Xavier conference, a number of characteristics of this view of curriculum theory were identified:

1. A holistic, organic view is taken of people and their relation to nature.

2. The individual becomes the chief agent in the construction of knowledge; that is, he/she is a culture creator as well as a culture bearer

[1] F. S. Perls, R. E. Hefferline, and P. Goodman. *Gestalt Therapy, Excitement, and Growth in the Human Personality*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1958.

[2] William C. Schultz. *Joy: Expanding Human Awareness*. New York: Grove Press, 1972.

[3] J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones. *A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training*. Iowa City, Iowa: University Associates Press, 1969.

[4] Donald Barthelme. "The Agreement." *The New Yorker*, 1974.

[5] William Pinar. *Heightened Consciousness, Cultural Revolution, and Curriculum Theory*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974.

[6] William Pinar. *Curriculum Theorizing: The Reconceptualists*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975.

3. The curriculum theorists draw heavily on their own experiential base as method

4. Curriculum theorizing recognizes as major resources the preconscious realms of experience

5. The foundational roots of this theorizing lie in existential philosophy, phenomenology, and radical psychoanalysis; they also draw from humanistic reconceptualizations of such cognate fields as sociology, anthropology, and political science

6. Personal liberty and the attainment of higher levels of consciousness become central values in the curriculum process

7. Diversity and pluralism are characteristics both of the social ends and the means proposed to attain those ends

8. A reconceptualization of supporting political-social operations is basic

9. New language forms are generated to translate fresh meanings, for example, metaphors.

That the work of the Reconceptualists has come to be recognized as an emerging direction in curriculum theory building is underscored in John D. McNeil's volume, *Curriculum*,[7] in which he discusses "future directions."

This experimental pak was developed to help individuals (a) examine their own value gestalts, and (b) to understand the theory alternatives available to them within the field of curriculum theory.

Curriculum Theory Alternative No. 1: Praxiological Approach

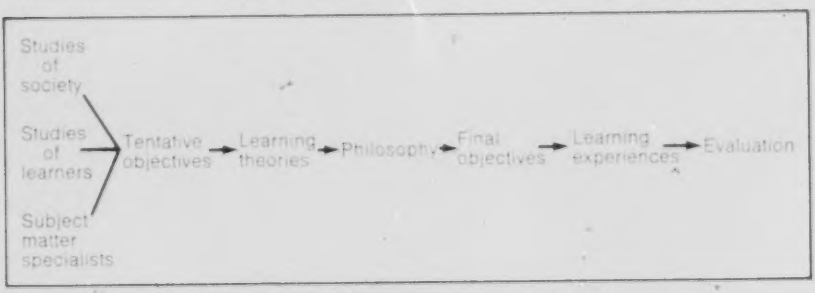
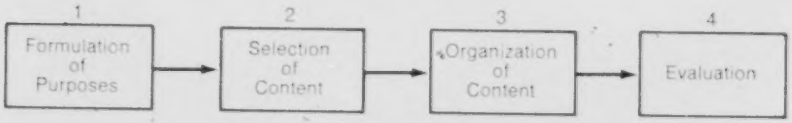


Figure 1. Conceptual framework (Tyler)

[7] John D. McNeil. *Curriculum*. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1977.

This curriculum development theory alternative is the basis for the so-called conventional wisdom of the curriculum development field. The work of Ralph W. Tyler is a good example of this approach. The preceding framework is often simplified into a four-step procedure:



Hilda Taba, John Goodlad, Galen Saylor, and William M. Alexander all make use of this basic Tylerian approach, which was generated in the Eight-Year Study. The most explicit statement of this theory is in Ralph W. Tyler's *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950).

Curriculum Theory Alternative No. 2: Scientific Approach

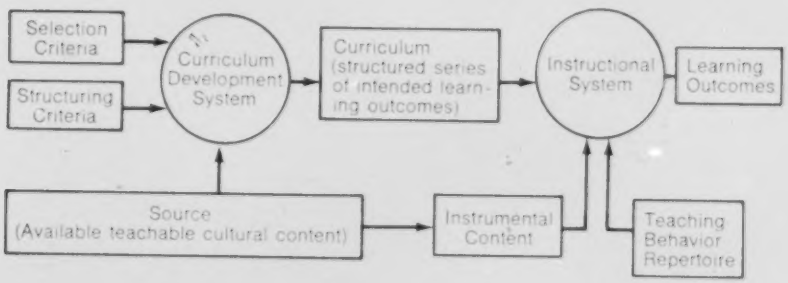


Figure 2. A model showing curriculum as an output of one system and an input of another

A smaller group of curriculum theorists take a scientific theory approach. The above model developed by Mauritz Johnson is a good example. The conceptual structure proposed by Kelly Duncan and Jack Frymier at the 1967 Ohio State Curriculum Theory Conference is

another. Some aspects of the OSU effort are shown in the following diagram:

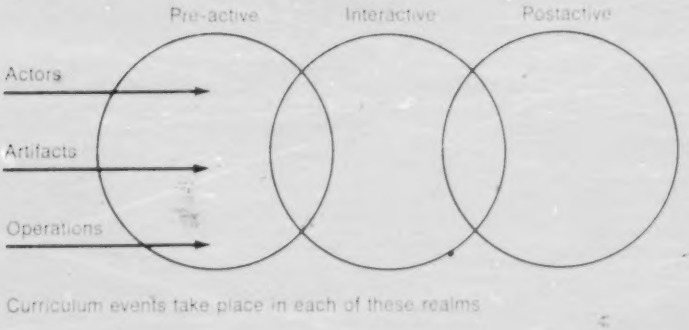


Figure 3. The Duncan-Frymier model

Details of Johnson's scheme are found in his essay, "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory," in: *Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum*, edited by Edmund C. Short and George D. Marconnit (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, 1968). The October 1967 issue of *Theory Into Practice* discussed the Duncan-Frymier proposal. Elliot Eisner takes a scientific stance in his editing of the 1969 Stanford University Curriculum Conference, reported in *Confronting Curriculum Reform:* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1971).

Curriculum Theory Alternative No. 3: Reconceptualist Approach

The reconceptualists in curriculum theory are those who, in Macdonald's words, view theorizing "as a creative intellectual task which they maintain should be neither used as a basis for prescription nor as an empirically testable set of principles and relationships." Papers presented at two curriculum theory conferences, one at the University of Rochester in 1973, and the second at Xavier University, Cincinnati, in October 1974, reflect the reconceptualists at work. Dwayne Huebner, Maxine Greene, James Macdonald, William Pinar, and Michael Apple all tend to theorize in this mode.

The proposal in Figure 4 for conceptualizing curriculum presented by James B. Macdonald at the Rochester conference is typical of his work:

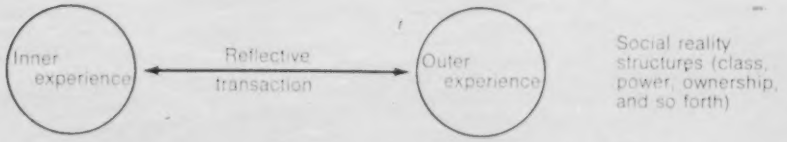


Figure 4. Model of praxis

This model of praxis Macdonald then develops further with his construct: a dual dialectic that may be diagrammed as follows:

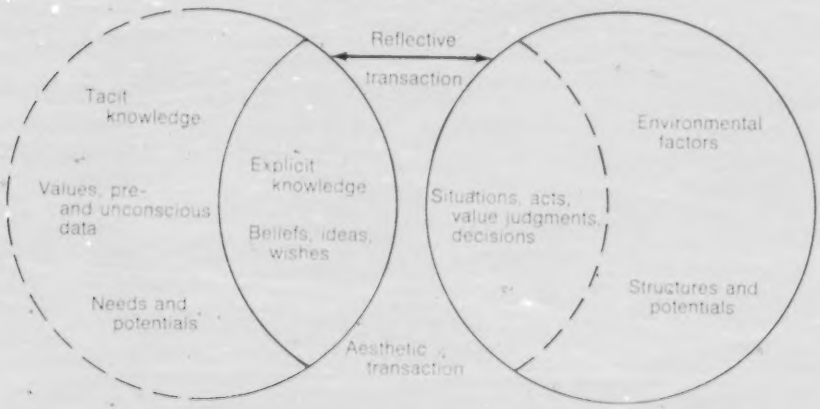


Figure 5. A dual dialectic

Chapter 5

HOW RESEARCH HELPS STAFF DEVELOPMENT: IN SCHOOLS AND IN BIG BUSINESS

Sara C. West

ASK ANY BRIGHT-EYED TWELVE-YEAR-OLD exhibitor at your local science fair about research, and he or she will probably come up with a fairly accurate statement of what research is all about. Certainly, the fledgling AERA member has some notion of research, and so does the president of General Motors Corporation. Even the person who casts concrete blocks can tell you something about how research has improved block-making.

The idea of research as a tool to improve specific undertakings and to increase knowledge in a given area does not seem to be the problem. Almost anyone can think of examples of how research has contributed to scientific, mechanical, technological, and medical improvements. The difficult idea to grasp is that of using research in a very broad context such as staff development that has so many facets. It is much easier to explore the specific while ignoring the whole. Why bother with the staff development monster when it is so much easier to handle research projects focused upon methods of teaching, educational materials, traits of good teachers, and the like?

Turning to colleagues for evidence that research is current in staff development is discouraging. When asked for examples, they refer with enthusiasm to identifying supervisory competencies, needs assessment, teacher expectancies, interaction analysis, and teacher self-images

—all potentially useful but none comprehensive enough to qualify as research in staff development.

Searching the literature for evidence that research has contributed to staff development in school systems reveals that there are few, if any, reports of research dealing with staff development per se. There are many articles describing staff development programs, giving opinions and conjectures, and reviewing the literature. As an illustration, both the October and December 1972 issues of *Theory Into Practice* were entirely devoted to models of staff development, but not one of the 22 articles is a research report. There are many reports of research on factors, such as new materials and techniques, that must be considered in designing staff development programs, but the research does not deal with the total system of staff development.

There are at least two explanations for this lack of research in staff development. The first is that since its nature is interdisciplinary the goals are broadly defined. Researchers seek situations that are manageable and have clearly defined, specific goals. They avoid those that are complex; that have unwieldy populations, long-range results, and broad goals difficult to assess. The second reason that research in staff development is so lacking is that the little research done is on the local level and is not disseminated. This research is situational, not considered generalizable, and therefore not reported beyond the desk of the principal or superintendent. These two treatments of research in staff development have the combined effect of rendering it almost invisible.

Consequently, we will not pursue the elusive monster or try to describe it. Rather, we will concentrate on the potential of research for improving staff development programs and on the existing need for research. To do this, we will refer to another complex system in which research has been productive.

The purpose of surveying this other system is not to draw parallels between it and education but to demonstrate that research can be systematically conducted amidst many interacting variables and that such research can result in overall improvement. Beginning with factory managers who attempted to apply the law of diminishing returns to learn how many more machines could be added to the production line before the costs outweighed the increase in production, management research has matured effectively to the present-day, highly sophisticated work on interpersonal variables and total system effectiveness.

Big Business and Big Education

Management in industry and business bears a resemblance to staff development in school systems. Big business and big education are more alike than different. Of course, everyone recognizes that business chases dollars and education chases kids. But really they are closely akin when one looks at the masses of people both must employ, train, humor, help, and sustain. To the extent that management is concerned with the utilization of human resources, its goals are similar to those of staff development. Staff development focuses on upgrading the knowledge and skills of teachers just as management seeks ways to increase the productivity of employees, whether workers, salespeople, or executives. One important difference that should be noted, however, is that staff development, unlike management, is not directly related to the supervisory function.

In guiding the practices and programs of management in business and industry, research has a useful history. Management has developed theories, models, and programs based on research. Examples are the theory of scientific management, intervention theory, Hertzberg's model, and organization development. Management journals are full of evidence that research is actively and widely conducted. Consulting firms that help businesses conduct research and design programs based on the results are themselves big businesses.

Widespread research efforts in management have produced many generalizations relating leadership, communication, and group process with performance. Examples of these generalizations, selected to represent the scope of management research findings, are listed here (4):

Leadership and Organizational Performance

1. Employee-centered supervisors are higher producers than job-centered supervisors.

2. High productivity is associated with low pressure for performance.

3. A superior's genuine interest and unselfish concern for the success and well-being of his/her subordinates have a positive effect on their performance and their job satisfaction.

   a. Supervisors who take time to train subordinates for better jobs achieve a higher level of performance than supervisors who think this is a waste of time.

b. Supervisors' concern for personal problems of subordinates is associated with higher performance.

4. Switching high- and low-production managers raised the productivity in low-production divisions faster than the former high-production divisions slipped under the low-production managers.

5. To have a friendly, supportive relationship with one's colleagues is more important to most people than relatively minor financial rewards.

6. For professional work, there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and performance, but not for monotonous, repetitive jobs.

7. High-producing managers use more participation and achieve higher involvement, greater interest in the work, and more responsibility for it than do low-producing managers.

8. Workers, supervisors, and scientists show higher productivity under conditions of more freedom, but only when there is a great deal of interaction between the individual, his/her colleagues, and his/her superior.

Communication, Influence, and Organizational Performance

9. Good communication and good performance go together.

10. Ease of transmitting ideas upward is associated with departmental effectiveness.

11. The higher the productivity, the greater the accuracy of perceptions.

12. The greater the peer-group loyalty, the greater the agreement between supervisor and worker as to what constitutes a reasonable standard.

13. Persons in higher producing units feel that they exercise more influence than those in low-producing units.

Group Process and Organizational Performance

14. Work groups that have high peer-group loyalty and common goals are effective in achieving their goals, whether the goals are consistent with or counter to the goals of the company.

15. Members of groups with greater peer-group loyalty are more likely to have a favorable attitude toward job and company, higher production goals, and more production.

16. Members who are strongly committed to common goals, who have high peer-group loyalty, favorable attitudes between superiors and subordinates, and a high level of skill in interaction can achieve far more than the same people acting as a mere assemblage.

17. Better results are obtained when an organization uses its humanpower as members of well-knit work groups with high performance goals than when its members are supervised on an individual person-to-person basis.

Analysis and synthesis of these research findings and many others led Likert to formulate a general principle that he labeled the "Principle of Supportive Relationships" and stated as follows (4):

> The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his/her background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his/her sense of personal worth and importance.

Evidence of the impact of the cited research findings and the general principle on management practices can be found in the subsequent implementation of the principle by industry and in the further research it has stimulated. Examples of the application of Likert's general principle abound in industry and have even spread to educational circles. The Ford Motor Company moved from isolated, repetitive, specialized jobs on the production line to small production teams responsible for a unit of production, giving them interdependent responsibility for the quality of their product.

The Jim Walter Corporation, the nation's fourth largest home builder, has moved to collegial management so that peer-group loyalty is increased and the responsibility for goal setting and production is placed on the members of a given unit or team. Textron, Levi-Strauss, and First National City Bank are other organizations that have designed management programs based on research, with attendant increases in productivity. The voucher system at Alum Rock School District, by making teachers in schools within schools responsible for designing their own programs to be offered on a competitive basis to students, has in effect evoked the same principle. Teachers are more involved in their work, work longer hours, are more cooperative, and demand better performance from their peers.

Organization Development: A Flourishing Practice

It is obvious that research efforts in management have modified principles and theories as well as everyday practices. The effects of research have been so pervasive that a new field of academic study and application has been created. Elaboration of the principle of supportive relationships through further research resulted in the flourishing practice of organization development (OD), a system for using research as an intervention strategy to improve organizational effectiveness. Although this system grew out of the earlier research efforts in management, it is based on observation of the reactive effects of research as it has been conducted using the scientific method.

Researchers have traditionally operated as executives. Their emphasis has been on clearly defined objectives, rationality, simplification and specialization, and the direction of control. Relevant rewards and penalties are in the hands of the researchers so that the subjects are dependent upon and subordinate to the researchers. Little, if any, responsibility in defining objectives, paths, and rewards is given to the subjects. Sometimes the true objective may even be withheld or distorted in order to guarantee collection of valid data. The researcher expects (a) uniformity in the application of treatment, (b) completion in such a way that every treatment can be shown to produce its effects under comparable conditions, and (c) objective measures that are publicly verifiable so that errors can be prevented or at least minimized.

The social system created when subjects participate in scientific research is similar to the traditional, authoritarian, bureaucratic, mechanistic organization found in most of our society (2). The following conditions are characteristics of both organization for research and mechanistic organizations:

1. Decision making and control are at the top levels.
2. There is unilateral management (research) action.
3. There is the expectation of subject dependency and conformity.
4. Tasks are explicitly and rigidly defined.
5. Control of the work flow is in the hands of the manager (researcher).
6. There is centralization of information, rewards, and penalties.

4. Commitment and loyalty are the primary responsibility of the manager (researcher), not of the subjects.

Rigorous, mechanistic research has unintended consequences that weaken the research effort and may have a detrimental rather than a neutral or beneficial effect on the permanent organization in which it is conducted. The following behaviors have been noted when the scientific method of research has been attempted in social systems (2).

1. There is physical withdrawal through absenteeism and turnover.

2. Psychological withdrawal is demonstrated through overagreement with and dependence on the researcher.

3. Overt hostility toward the research may be shown through refusal to complete research tasks.

4. Covert hostility toward research, knowing but not giving the right answers, being difficult, second-guessing the research design, producing minimally, and disbelieving the research may invalidate the effort.

5. The emphasis is upon extrinsic rather than intrinsic rewards.

Redesigning research so that it positively affects the organization in which it is conducted is increasingly being accomplished by OD. Such research, called organic research, is designed both to increase the probability of generating valid information and to create conditions for free choice and internal commitment if the clients choose to go beyond the research, called the diagnostic, phase. Generally, the differences are in the degree of the clients' involvement in research.

Organistically-oriented research modifies the traditional approach of mechanistic research activities in three ways. First, relationships with the clients are created so that they have more influence over the design, execution, and analysis of the research. Second, research methods that deal as much as possible with observed categories are utilized. Third, operational definitions that provide the basis for identifying specific changes in client behavior are developed (5).

Using these modifications of traditional research techniques, practitioners of OD are striving to improve productivity of organizations by working with the total organization rather than with its isolated parts. In effect, they have rejected the traditional researcher's demand for

objectivity and insistence on controllable, discrete groups as the proper setting for research.

This brief history of the development of research and theory in management is not offered as a source of research findings relevant to the design of staff development programs in school systems. It is intended instead as an example of how research in a complex social system can lead to the development of theory, which in turn, can generate practical programs to be implemented.

Improve Staff Development Through Research?

The question of whether staff development could be improved through research involves three considerations: the nature of the organization, the purposes of staff development, and the problems facing staff development. If teachers are to benefit from staff development, they must be considered members of a system, the school, which is an organization. As such, research of the organization development variety should be beneficial as a staff development activity. The purpose of staff development traditionally has been to improve the knowledge and skills of individual teachers. One of the reasons that staff development activities, whether in-service, summer institute, or college courses, have not been more successful seems to be that when a teacher who has received training attempts to implement new ideas he or she is discouraged by the institutional press for conformity and by the lack of support for these newly gained ideas. Research is needed to corroborate this hypothesis.

Finally, there are definite problems facing staff development programs that call for clarification by research. Following is a list of questions directly related to staff development activities that have been frequently addressed in the form of conjectures and opinions, but it is only through research that we will begin to identify productive answers pointing the way for future action.

1. What causes the vanishing innovation? Many schools have enthusiastically adopted innovations only to have them melt away within a few years, leaving no evidence for the cause of their disappearance. Examples are the curriculums prepared by university study groups in the 1960's and the new schools that open with highly innovative programs but gradually assume a traditional mode of operation. The

research problem is to compare schools and/or teachers that remain innovative with those that revert to traditionalism.

2. Whatever happened to differentiated staffing? Although such an arrangement was predicted by futurist writers more than a decade ago, it seems to be making slow progress and meeting rejection more often than acceptance. Why is it resisted? What factors are so unpopular?

3. How do staff development programs prepare one for promotion to administration? There is no program, beyond the state certification requirements, which calls only for teaching experience and a master's degree, neither of which necessarily makes one a good administrator. What kind of staff development program would enable one to become a good administrator?

4. Is the reward system in schools effective? Teachers identify personal growth as their most potent motivating factor, but they are offered only credits leading to financial reward. What other rewards could be offered, how could they be instituted, and what effect would they have?

5. What kind of feedback do teachers need to improve their performance? Most teachers receive only a cursory supervisory rating each year. The categories are too broad to give direction to self-improvement. What alternative system of feedback is available?

These questions are examples of the problems in staff development requiring research. They have not attracted the attention of researchers in the past because they are too broad and too complex; there are too many variables and not enough controls. We need to reconceptualize research so that it treats important, global issues, gives direction to staff development programs, and improves the programs as it is being conducted.

If research in staff development is to be implemented with these ambitious goals, we will increasingly need historical surveys, longitudinal studies of the effects of staff development, and organic research into the social system of the schools. For each of these, there is a need. Recognizing the diversity that exists among schools, we must begin systematically to describe and analyze what is happening.

The word is out. Business and education do not march to the beat of a different drum; rather there is mutuality in that both are in the people business. People make the organization, profits or none: sale-

able goods or young people with saleable skills. Recognizing this, big businesses have expended time, money, and energy to learn through research how to upgrade skills and increase job satisfaction of employees. In my opinion, education, through staff development programs, would do well to follow suit.

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Chapter 6

ACTION RESEARCH FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Robert S. Fleming

ACTION RESEARCH means the use of a research approach to solve an existing problem. Such a procedure is useful as school personnel seek ways of solving persisting problems, such as school discipline, student interest, motivation of learning, improving communication, creative uses of local resources, and identification of the causes of failure. The vitality of the school can be strengthened and competencies of personnel enhanced through participation in research activities. In a period of many "ready-made" curriculum materials such an approach helps to keep the focus on local concerns.

Action research is action oriented. Getting results in operation—acting on findings, improving the curriculum "here and now,"—these make action research. This approach to research was one of the significant developments of the late 40's and early 50's. Many curriculum workers were engaged in action research as a viable approach to curriculum improvement long before massive research funds were available in education. It should be remembered that at that time there were no regional labs, there were no Title III funds available, school budgets did not include significant research items. There were no institutes to "train" research workers. Evaluation was in its infancy and there was little diversity of instruments. The concept emerged in a natural way, and it has persisted. As the literature in this area became more extensive, the idea seemed to have vitality and stability. No doubt it generated much interest in research which characterized the "ESEA" era.

Action research employs a carefully developed design which is, or *may be, developmental in nature.* Group efforts and cooperative ways of working are often highlighted. It focuses upon problem identification, clarification, and analysis. Much of the dynamics of the action research approach is generated at this point. As practitioners recognize and define problems their sensitivity to their situation is enhanced and role clarification is commenced. Typical questions to be faced include: When is a problem a problem? What are the limits of the problem? What are the constraints related to the problem? How do we limit the problem to this situation at this time?

In all such considerations curriculum is kept in focus. Values are inherent in this approach and relationships of various goals are brought into prominence. While priority items are recognized, communication between teachers and administrators is central.

As the design emerges it appears essential for the individual or group to begin questioning as to what is already known about this. What research do we now have? This begins an efficient utilization of existing research. In the past, many educational workers have not been efficient consumers of existing research. One of the virtues of the action research concept is that it helps curriculum workers to become aware of existing research and to recognize and utilize current research findings.

There is much research in educational literature that has not become a part of the standard practice of the typical teacher. Many teachers know much more than they put into operation in their classrooms. "The assumption is made that teachers do not use research findings because they are not actively engaged in research activities. Perhaps one of the most significant hypotheses about school improvement is that as teachers engage in research activities, their teaching will improve." [1]

The work of Caswell, Foshay, and Corey places emphasis on action research as a basis for improvement. "The process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decisions and actions is what a number of people have called action research." [2]

Caswell described the growth of the action research concept as an encouraging movement toward fundamental revision of research pro-

[1] Robert S. Fleming. *Curriculum for Today's Boys and Girls.* Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, 1963. p. 546.

[2] Stephen M. Corey. *Action Research To Improve School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. p. 6.

cedures in the curriculum. He was optimistic that it would contribute to a revival of interest in curriculum research. This has happened.

Interest in research as a means of improving the curriculum has become more widespread. As this concept emerged, discussions of the differences between "action" research and "fundamental" research occurred. A feeling that a research approach to curriculum improvement was important led the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) to adopt this concept in the work of its Commission on Research. Through a variety of conferences, publications, and meetings at national conventions, educators in ASCD began to clarify the status of research in the curriculum field and the nature of curriculum improvement. Such discussions gradually emphasized the potential power of the use of a research approach to improvement of schools.

Because action research is situational, each particular problem must be approached in each given school. No effort is made to solve the problem for all situations. It is for this school at this time.

The following qualities of action research seem typical and tend to characterize the process:

1. The problem for action research is one of immediate, local concern.
2. The design for the project is developmental.
3. The teacher begins to survey those factors related to the problem which help him or her to understand its limitations.
4. The teacher seeks to investigate all available relevant information in the literature concerning the problem.
5. Data are collected at the beginning of the inquiry to determine if the condition which is thought to be a problem really is a problem.
6. Resources in the school are recognized and used.
7. Work on the problem is carried on continuously.
8. Evaluation activities are carried out at every phase of the project.
9. Findings of the project are immediately recognized and action is modified accordingly.
10. New problems are recognized and the cycle of inquiry is extended.
11. The project is summarized by those participating and the

results are shared with appropriate groups in the school and/or community.[3]

This concept of school improvement and staff development employs practical approaches to in-service work. Some things teachers might do to identify problems would include:

1. Prepare a summary of all information available about the students who concern you most.

   a. Include health, home background, relationships with other children, interests, emotional characteristics (fears, anxieties, concerns), academic progress, work habits, test data, information from other teachers.

   b. List the questions you have as you summarize the previous information.

   c. Talk with the principal about your questions.

   d. Talk with the parents to summarize the material, clarify questions, and get new insights.

   e. Plan an approach to be followed in helping each student.

2. Prepare a summary of all information available about your group. Keep data for boys and girls separate. (Follow same plan as described in number 1.)

3. Keep a list of the questions raised by your students over a week's time. Analyze the questions for clues regarding ways of identifying concerns of your group.

4. Accumulate a series of papers the children have written. Date each paper. Analyze papers to determine major impressions (difficulties, concerns) that emerge. This analysis leads to the diagnosing of ways in which work habits can be improved.

5. Observe the group (or individual) in a variety of situations. Summarize each observation. Analyze the summaries for trends and for major concerns.

6. Organize a faculty discussion around: (a) major observations of the students; (b) concerns of students; (c) learning difficulties; (d) responses of students to experiences such as art, music, physical education.

7. Identify a major innovation in your teaching which you feel holds promise.

[3] Fleming, *op. cit.*, p. 565.

8. Read research literature. As groups of teachers talk about the research findings some problems of their school may become evident.

9. The faculty together might see and analyze a series of films on understanding children or on some aspect of learning. They might attempt to relate the film to their school.

Hypothesis Making Is Basic in Action Research

After the problem is clear and situational factors are recognized, the investigator has an opportunity to project solutions to the problem. One might start with a list of major assumptions which he or she makes as a basis for establishing a framework within which the hypothesis exists.

Care should be taken to establish essential assumptions underlying the inquiry. This means that he or she must focus on the content of the subject area, learning, evaluation, parental attitudes, teachers' competencies, and the mechanics of the working situation before he or she can begin to hypothesize. The hypothesis is the most reasonable projected solution one can make to a given problem.

Evaluation Plays a Part in Action Research

The evaluation process continues throughout the period of inquiry. As has already been stated, it is essential at the initial stage as one formulates the problem. The procurement of evidence, the establishment of status, the formulation of descriptions of behavior, and the identification of trends are all important components of evaluation. The action research process must constantly facilitate the identification of progress made, responses to the work, changes in perceptions, and the clarification of appropriate next steps. Evaluation plays the role of summarizing the assessment of gains at various time intervals and of the final "pulling together" of progress made.

Testing the Hypothesis and Acting On It

With the data collected, the important task of formally testing the hypothesis is undertaken. This is a simple process in which one confronts the problem to be tested with a summary of the organized data collected. This makes it possible for one to formally accept or reject a

hypothesis, and then to raise the question as to its meaning. As an application of the project is made to other aspects of the program, one is then able to extend the work.' At this point, school improvement is possible on a larger scale.

Curriculum workers might well intensify efforts toward continued curriculum improvement, since it tends to come about as schools seek ways of bringing about improvement in their program. The teacher or the school whose work remains unchanged over a period of years is doubtless carrying on a program with little stimulation or challenge for either students or teacher. The vitality of inquiry, the enthusiasm of exploration, the stimulation of sharing and planning, the richness of interpreting data, are a part of the process.

How can a faculty conceive of its job in isolation from information concerning the school and its student body? How can a dynamic program emerge when the crucial problems of a community are unknown? How can the learning episode for an individual have vitality and meaning if his or her status and perceptions are unknown, and if blocks to learning are undefined?

Teachers and other curriculum workers can investigate "short term" innovations in the classroom. As one learns to set up a problem, to formulate hypotheses, to collect data from observations, tests, interviews, and products of students' work, some research skills may come into focus. Out of these "short range" projects may grow more formal or complex questions to be researched.

Today's teachers cannot ignore research. Today's world recognizes at every turn the dynamic power of inquiry. We probe the unknown in space with great confidence and know-how. We succeeded in space exploration not by limiting our thinking to what was already known but by extending our knowledge and channeling the work of many people.

There is a powerful potential—research potential—in our curriculum efforts. This is a task that must be conceived, planned, and executed by professional educators as they seek ways of placing greater emphasis on learning. This has been the purpose of the action research concept since its inception.

Chapter 7

VISUALIZING A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Leslee Bishop

STAFF DEVELOPMENT is a complex but necessary professional responsibility; it is a way of relating learner and curriculum needs to staff competencies and program development; it requires the translation of deficiencies into program objectives that are affirmative and generative; it focuses attention upon the delivery capabilities of all instructional personnel—administrators, supervisors, teachers, and other support persons; and it targets the learners to be served and the staff to be directly involved. The outline proposed here indicates a possible departure point for program planning to be used by the local district in building its own structure.

The visual summary, on p. 58, lists critical events to be achieved in order to institute a qualitative staff development program. The emphasis is upon management tasks and their relationship to program and evaluation. *Formative evaluation* refers to those assessments that are made as the project moves along; they are designed to develop a data base for the summative evaluation and to assist leadership persons in making the necessary decisions and changes. *Monitoring* involves the collection of process and achievement data that, along with the formative evaluation, provide necessary information for management. *Summative evaluation* utilizes these en-route data, as well as other information collected, in order to provide a means for valuing the total impact of the program and establishing a base for subsequent program developments.

One intent is to suggest a flexible and tentative framework into which other critical events can be inserted as needed by the local district, without having to reconstruct the total network. The items are spaced in intervals of two (1, 3, 5, etc.) so that in a particular situation it is relatively simple to make the revisions necessary to accommodate local conditions. One obvious alternative is to eliminate those events that are not essential to the plan. As a further aid to understanding, events are structured into three lines to provide easier analysis of management, program, and evaluation responsibilities. The top line proposes management responsibilities; the center, basic program activities; and the bottom, primarily evaluation tasks.

Another purpose is to develop an outline of events that provides a structure for developing specific approaches, instruments, and essential processes. By establishing a generalized plan, arrangements can be made for technical assistance at critical points or with those events that cannot be expeditiously managed by the local district. Likewise, advanced planning can be done with universities or regional agencies for needed course work, in-service activities, resource development or acquisition, and local decision making regarding sequence, time frames, budgets, utilization of personnel, visitation, released time, and interaction with curriculum councils and the community.

Successful projects already conducted by the school system, professional literature, and research can be utilized by relating them to the critical events indicated. Planning groups can assess the utility of these materials for their application to the proposed program. By viewing past achievements and impending program efforts, a professional resource center can be established, and materials can be arranged in terms of particular events or program lines, as shown on the visual. Such resources can be developed into learning centers to be used in connection with all the staff development program efforts of the school district. Since many state and federal projects require a program approach, these centers and resources will provide a continuous and personalized approach for all staff renewal efforts.

Ongoing programs and assignments can be reviewed to relate the new projects with those already operating. Thus, the new effort need not be another add-on that intrudes on rather than reinforces the priorities already in motion. Accordingly, it will be necessary to supplement or rephrase the listed events so that the tasks and timing are compatible with established procedures.

The skeletal plan provides the base for other necessary considerations. For example, cost estimates can be made regarding agreed-upon activities; the necessary policy, budget, and personnel decisions can be determined; the overall plan can be communicated to persons within the system to suggest the major landmarks and occurrences that can be anticipated; and parents and community agencies can be informed and involved.

Many sub-events may be required to achieve the listed landmarks, since they will necessitate many logistical arrangements regarding time, place, personnel, intent, and impact. For example, it is highly unlikely that implementation of the staff development objectives and activities (item 17) would be a single event. It would more likely be a series of workshops, course meetings, or conferences. Therefore, the listing is useful as an indication of placement and sequence, but it is only a placeholder for the many transactions that will occur as program.

It should be expected that any plan will need to be revised as it moves along. Consequently, the specifics regarding time, cost, and other details will modify the original structure or sequence. It is the function of management, working closely with those who are involved and affected, to make and communicate these decisions regarding changes. Since the suggested structure is developmental rather than time-bound, it becomes the responsibility of the local district to propose its own calendar. This can be done by adding vertical lines (time intervals) to the visualized plan or by assigning an achievement date to each event.

Finally, the proposed events also suggest leadership competencies. Each major task assumes the ability to manage a number of responsibilities. For example, to complete a learner needs assessment (events 9-15), some of the following competencies (and tasks) would be involved:

1. Conceptualize the components to be included in the needs assessment.

2. Determine long- and short-range goals as they relate to the proposed project and ongoing programs.

3. Investigate and propose alternative designs for doing the needs assessment.

4. Establish procedures for initiating the climate (or climate analysis) for a needs assessment.

5. Design the needs assessment for the local district that is compatible with the resources, personnel, and overall objectives.

6. Implement the design, involving persons and agencies as needed or appropriate.

7. Collect and analyze the needs assessment data.

8. Assign priority to the needs in accordance with the criteria for needs determination and the processes, persons, and agencies who were involved.

These tasks relate to events as given on the visual plan. By analyzing the responsibilities and data required, it becomes possible to develop an accountability design, to provide a system for communicating what is to transpire, and to clarify commitments in regard to specific outcomes.

Once events are determined and delineated in regard to the specifics that relate to them, it is possible to evaluate each event. Since each event has its own profile (with objectives, means, personnel, transactions, and logistics), selected profile elements can be reviewed for their adequacy process, achievement, feeling, and impact. These data assist with the monitoring responsibility by facilitating planning, decision making, and record keeping. They provide critical inputs to the formative, and subsequently the summative, evaluation. Whether the evaluative measures focus upon individuals, outcomes, arrangements, processes, impact upon learners, or upon combinations of these elements, is an important management decision.

There are many other possibilities and considerations. As a beginning agenda, the proposed network enables the district to involve appropriate persons and processes in accordance with their responsibilities, expertise, and commitments. District goals can be translated into individual and group objectives. This process would include restructuring the plan, not imposing it. No imported plan can include all the variables or constraints unique to a particular school system. The style and resources of the school system will be reflected in the way desired outcomes are processed. No plan is a panacea or a substitute for rethinking what needs to be done. But without a plan, events become chaos not achievement. A good plan provides an index to the responsiveness of the school district, the competencies of its professionals, and their commitments to learners.

Critical Events in Establishing an Educational Improvement Program and Related Staff Development

(with emphasis on management responsibilities and evaluation)

1. Policy decision to initiate a staff development project.

3. Designate management (leadership) personnel, proposed budget, process guidelines and time frame for project, criteria to assess management achievements.

5. Design evaluative measures for leadership-management function; implement.

7. Begin monitoring and formative evaluation regarding leadership-management activities.

9. Determine strategy for learner needs assessment, for example, use of (a) goal statements, (b) developed objectives, (c) test data, (d) problem census, (e) background socioeconomic or other data; also determine degree and nature of involvements.

11. Conduct learner needs assessment; provide for continuing research capability.

13. Diagnose and assign priority to identified learner needs; involve appropriate persons and processes.

15. State learner needs and priorities as established by formula, data, and group process.

17. Collect baseline data regarding target learners, including use of needs assessment information; disseminate to involved persons.

19. Complete review of situation, including plans for proceeding; determine likely constraints and resources available or needed.

21. Begin monitoring and formative evaluation of learner program objectives and activities.

23. Translate learner needs statement and baseline data into program objectives; use objectives as the criteria for program selection/development; conduct feasibility study or program search.

25. Determine (from among studied alternatives) the educational improvement program that most nearly meets criteria and objectives regarding learner needs; adapt or develop necessary program elements and resource materials.

27. Design evaluative measures to assess developed program objectives and related activities for learners; implement.

29. State program objectives and related activities regarding staff development phase of project.

31. Determine staff competencies needed to deliver educational improvement objectives; determine related materials and resources; state criteria or standards to be achieved.

33. Design evaluative measures to assess critical staff (teacher and leadership) competencies; implement.

35. Institute monitoring and formative evaluation regarding staff development objectives and activities.

37. Conduct assessment of needed staff competencies and/or selection of competent staff; collect baseline data of staff competencies (entry behaviors, background, readiness).

39. Determine objectives and criteria for support elements (administration, supervision, services) that are necessary to initiate, implement, and sustain the educational program.

41. Design evaluative measures to assess support elements and persons; implement.

43. Assign personnel and responsibilities; allocate resources; arrange logistics and support features regarding staff development activities.

45. Begin monitoring and formative evaluation regarding support elements.

47. Conduct staff development activities designed to meet objectives—course work, lab-simulation experiences, training.

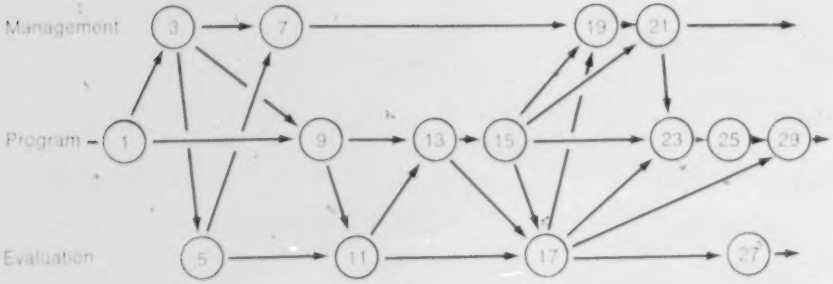
49. Assign personnel and responsibilities; allocate resources; arrange logistics for learner-program phase.

51. Conduct summative evaluation of staff development objectives, activities, and impact-effectiveness-gain (include needs assessment, formative and monitoring data).

53. Conduct-implement learner program activities designed to meet educational program objectives.

55. Conduct summative evaluation regarding learner program objectives, activities, and impact-effectiveness-gain (include needs assessment, formative and monitoring data).

57. Assemble management, achievement, and support data for summative evaluation.



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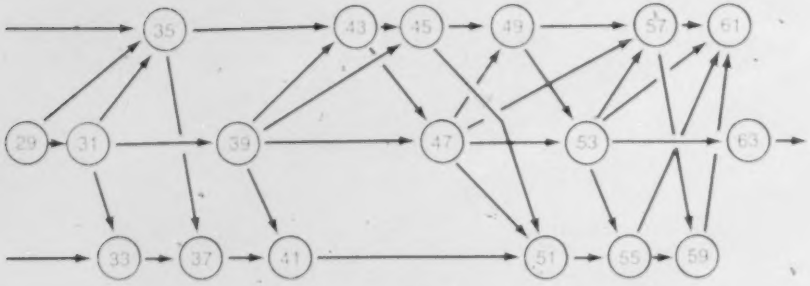

Visualizing a Staff Development Plan

59. Conduct summative evaluation of leadership, management, and support objectives, activities, impact-effectiveness-gain (include formative and monitoring data).

61. Feedback results obtained from summative evaluation, include recommendations regarding needed or new program objectives for leadership, staff, learners, program resources; consolidate data as baseline behaviors, resources, achievements.

63. Determine nature, scope, involvement, processes for new program(s) based on staff competencies, support elements, learner gains, and related context and baseline data.

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Chapter 8

ACCOUNTABILITY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Callie P. Shingleton

In the Commonwealth of Virginia, a program of staff development is essential for the five-year school improvement plan in each school division. Through action by the Virginia General Assembly, staff development became a part of the standard requiring the development and annual revision of this plan.

Specific expectations have been identified for the teacher under the *Standards of Quality and Objectives for Virginia's Public Schools*, and the professional growth of teachers has emerged as an urgent need. The major responsibilities of teachers include humanization of instruction, provision for individual differences, use of appropriate instructional materials, organization of learning activities, provision for a favorable psychological environment, and evaluation of the progress of students.

Much thought has been given and much effort directed by school division personnel to all aspects of the educational process and the factors influencing that process. A great amount of time has been devoted to planning, with initial efforts producing varying results in school divisions. Many positive benefits have evolved, but staff development as a part of a five-year school improvement plan still requires considerable attention.

Even with mandated staff development, one cannot ignore humanistic means and ends if expected change is to be significant and long term. Much research has been directed toward the change process, and

it is an accepted principle that the individual has to be instrumental in determining his or her own needs and plans for improvement in order for purposeful growth to take place. Most teachers want to grow and will grow if the emphasis is on growth and not remediation. Educational change starts with the perceptions of teachers.

The concept of staff development cannot be approached in a superficial or simplistic manner. What factors or ideas should be considered as a basis for a program of staff development? In this paper, reconceptualization of staff development in terms of accountability is directed toward a commitment to humanistic objectives. This embodies an approach to staff development predicated on respect for and trust in the individual. If teachers are treated in an open and humanistic manner that encourages growth, they are more likely to work with children in the same way. Thus, staff development should embody a spirit of acceptance, trust, communication, and experimentation. Authentic consultation and participation are vital in this process.

For humanistic education to occur, staff development must be a humanistic process. Through this new dimension, a professional growth pattern can be conceptualized that takes into account the humanness and diversity of students and teachers in a pluralistic society. Humanizing staff development is concerned distinctly with human interests and values; it extends to the development of the full potential of every individual. It involves teachers' being able to understand and activate their potential. Developing humane potentialities is a complex process.

Participation of the teacher in his or her professional growth is essential. In the past, staff development programs have been disjointed, mostly mass efforts, remedial rather than developmental. Constant inquiry is necessary to develop the potential humanness of every individual. Thus, teachers must seek continually to develop themselves and to learn their craft.

A basic assumption is that accountability is related to humanizing staff development. Significant educational progress is tied directly to the quality of professional growth that enables the individual to develop and utilize all his/her potential. To do this, persons in leadership, whether supervisor or principal, must be aware of and in touch with the thoughts, feelings, and perceptions of teachers as expressed through their communication and behavior. This means knowing what teachers are interested in, their problems and needs, and how they can be supported and helped. Personal encounter and open communication are

invaluable in humanizing staff development. Potential is personal and individual; hence, the supervisor or principal who would release the potential in teachers must know them as individuals. Releasing potential and humanizing staff development can be facilitated by principals and supervisors through:

1. Observing and listening with concern to teachers
2. Being sensitive to clues that indicate ways in which assistance can be provided
3. Achieving openness in communication and relationships with teachers
4. Helping teachers achieve objectives that have personal relevance for them and for the students with whom they work
5. Recognizing individual differences in teachers and using this diversity to develop instructional alternatives and options for students in the school setting
6. Questioning and responding in ways that help teachers assume increased responsibility for their own development
7. Making development of teachers a major goal of leadership
8. Establishing a school environment of openness
9. Encouraging and supporting experimentation
10. Challenging and stretching the minds and abilities of teachers in creative, self-fulfilling endeavors.

Discrepancies between ideal and actual teaching performance provide a basis for projected staff development. An open and supportive relationship that expects each teacher to find the best ways of changing his/her own behavior is more likely to provide better means for pursuing interests and solving problems. Humanizing staff development requires the provision of options, alternatives, and choices within the structure of the expectation that there will be teacher growth. Working with teachers in this manner may seem too permissive for some. It may be difficult to work in a humanistic manner initially, but in the long run it is more successful and satisfactory for all concerned.

Humanizing staff development is a process of designing learning cooperatively with the teacher to fit his/her needs, interests, and abilities. If one expects the teacher to do this for the student, then provision must be made to do the same for the growth of the teacher. Humanistic

planning involves an acceptance and trust in the self-direction of the individual and his/her potential and utilizes many methods, techniques, and materials to provide numerous opportunities for successful learning.

Several propositions emerge to give direction to humanizing staff development. The term "proposition" is defined here as a proposal offered for consideration or acceptance. Propositions considered essential to humanizing staff development have been identified and arranged in a format that can be used for discussion and further thinking. Degree of acceptance and degree of implementation can be indicated.

Propositions Related to Humanizing Staff Development

Degree of Acceptance	Degree of Implementation
1. Unacceptable	1. Not implemented
2. Questionable	2. Weakly implemented
3. Accept with reservations	3. Average implementation
4. Accept in general	4. Strongly implemented
5. Endorse completely	5. Fully implemented

	Degree of Acceptance	Degree of Implementation
1. Leadership is concerned with enhancing and facilitating the growth of individuals who possess values, attitudes, ideas, and who are seeking to increase their personal worth. Staff development, therefore, must be a humanizing experience affording opportunity for personal discovery and at the same time helping the individual to acquire competence that enables him/her to provide options and alternatives in learning for young people	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Leadership extends to the development of the full potential of humanness of every individual. Teachers must feel that their potential is accepted and valued, their capacity for responsibility trusted, and their creative ability prized. Potential is personal and individual; hence, the supervisor who would release the potential in teachers must know them as individuals	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

	Degree of Acceptance	Degree of Implementation
3. Learning takes place in an interdisciplinary way. Staff development must be designed in process and content in keeping with sound principles of learning related to the enhancement and growth of individuals. Incorporating a humanistic approach to learning will necessitate supervisory efforts that are primarily interactive rather than preactive	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Learning is viewed as a dynamic process in which individuals acquire knowledge through self-reflection and interaction with others. When individuals are met at a level and through means that are central to their concerns, interests, ideas, and modes of thinking and feeling, they are likely to generate their own insights into situations and problems	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Humanizing staff development is a process of designing learning cooperatively with teacher and supervisor to fit a particular teacher according to needs, interests, and abilities. It requires attention to and provision for openness as a viable and essential factor in the growth of individuals	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. Meaningful professional growth activities cannot be planned successfully unless teachers have a major role in the identification and articulation of their training needs. In order for significant change in perceptions and behavior to occur, teachers must participate in the direction and control of their own professional growth	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. A school climate or educational setting that recognizes and encourages self-growth activities and professional decision making will result in greater teacher initiative and competency than one in which these supporting forces are not present	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

	Degree of Acceptance	Degree of Implementation
8. Staff development should be concerned with interaction in which teachers are encouraged and guided in clarifying beliefs and values in light of their own experiences. When individuals change their values, a change in behavior will occur in the process. Teachers can be assisted in this process by the supervisor through discussing, clarifying questions, providing the means for teachers to analyze their functional capacity, identifying congruency between stated beliefs and practices, and helping teachers take steps to change their behavior in light of important beliefs and values	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. Staff development should be closely related to creating options and alternatives in the teaching and learning situation. This is the facilitation process for putting into practice the important idea of finding personal meaning and humanization of instruction. Individuality is accepted and diversity is used to build options and alternatives. Teacher and student strengths and interests are utilized and new strengths and interests are promoted. Developing options and alternatives can be accomplished through constant inquiry, invention, creation, reconceptualization, and experimentation	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. Teachers will be motivated to take part in staff development activities if they see a direct relationship between these activities and their daily teaching	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

A fixed program of staff development appears unrealistic and invalid according to available knowledge about how adults learn. Resources must be provided so that staff improvement becomes a developmental process which is cooperatively planned and an integral part of education. Some means or methods, such as keeping individual records of the professional growth activities of the teachers, are needed to ensure continuity and a developmental approach to each teacher's increasing awareness, expanding perceptions, and growth in understanding and

skills. Professional growth activities need to be greatly enlarged to include a variety of methods and means that can accommodate different ways of interacting and responding according to the individual's learning and teaching style.

Accountability can exist only in human terms in the educational setting. What is inside the perceptions of teachers and their purposes must be considered in any program of staff development. The importance of this is illustrated in the following excerpt from a classroom teacher's philosophy:

> . . . but perhaps they saw something in me that I was to discover about myself that first year of teaching. I became captivated by my students. They provided the bridge between my years of undirected exploration and my present years of purposeful growth. Through their response to me, I have grown to see myself as a confident and competent woman. It is this goal that I, too, desire for my students—that they see themselves as confident and competent human beings. It is for this purpose that I continue to teach. By being interested in a child and accepting of his ideas, I hope to show that child that he is a person of individual worth. By helping that child gain the skills he needs to be a contributing member of our society, I hope to show him that he is a competent person, capable of learning, and that he can be confident of his ability to grow and explore in a meaningful and self-satisfying way. An individual, proud of what he can accomplish for himself and of what he can contribute to his community, is, I believe, the goal of education.[1]

Planning for staff development in humanistic terms represents a challenge for those in leadership roles. Can we meet this challenge?

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Chapter 9

ON-SITE, IN-SERVICE TRAINING VIA HELPING TEACHERS

Beth Nelson

IT APPEARS to be an uncontested fact that on-going in-service training programs are essential in public education at all levels. Regardless of the nature or quality of preservice training, school systems without an in-service training program lack that vital component necessary to cope with the pressing needs generated by rapid societal changes. These changes are first reflected in the students, or clients, of the institution. Later, of necessity, they are reflected in the curriculum, and thus the importance of a systematic in-service training component. This paper describes the role of supervision and the supportive role of helping teachers in systematic, on-site, continuous in-service training for the classroom teacher and the resultant changes ascribed to the system.

The model described here was developed at the elementary school level over a five-year period (1966-1971) in a relatively small, mainly rural school division.[1] The concept, with appropriate modifications, has been adopted by other divisions of various sizes with different demographic characteristics.

Personnel referred to in this paper as helping teachers are teachers within individual schools who are not assigned to classroom teaching but rather to the coordination of the total instructional program and who have specific responsibility for children with learning problems.

[1] The complete study is described in: Beth Nelson. "From a Remedial Reading Program to One of Curriculum and Instructional Coordination in the Classroom: A Case Study of Changing Roles and Functions of Supportive Personnel." Doctoral dissertation, University of Virginia, 1972.

They help classroom teachers with problems related to classroom management, instructional strategies, curriculum materials and content, and they assure students proper articulation for learning continuity from year to year. They serve as models for new teachers in the initial stages of supportive services, and at critical periods, for all teachers.

These teachers are key people in the linkage system or communications network vital to the process of effective and efficient change. Since making major structural and behavioral changes in schools is a complex undertaking between the classroom teachers and the administrative and supervisory personnel, this linkage function is of great importance. Many problems encountered in making educational changes can be traced to the lack of communication or feedback. Faulty perceptions can be corrected only as they become known.

The role of the helping teacher actually supplanted that of the remedial reading teacher in the evolution and the reconstructive forces that created the helping teacher in-service system. The many factors involved in the change and the processes that brought it about are not within the scope of this report. However, a simplified rationale can be given.

A remedial reading teacher was selected in 1966 by the principals of eight schools. Most principals tended to select the person they believed to be the most competent and effective teacher on their staff. A few selected a teacher from applicants on file in the superintendent's office. The original plan provided for 30- to 45-minute, small-group instruction periods for students at or above the fourth grade whose achievement appeared substantially below their ability. An evaluation of this program, which was funded by ESEA Title I, revealed:

1. The need for small-group instruction was overridden by the great numbers of children who required the service. Pressure from the faculty and the principal caused the remedial reading teacher to be overburdened and unable to deliver the individual help most students needed.

2. Gains appeared greater and more lasting or consistent at the fourth-grade level than at each succeeding grade level.

3. It was the opinion of the reading teacher and the reading supervisor who coordinated the program that many of the reading problems were the result of ineffective teaching at the primary level and that earlier intervention was needed.

4. There was little or no modification of the curriculum for the remedial reading student in his/her homeroom and no time for needed communication between the teachers. Gains made in self-confidence under the supportive help of the remedial reading teacher, which generally resulted in improved self-image and performance, were frequently negated in the regular classroom.

The annual evaluations of the project pointed to many systemwide needs that were not being met through the remediation system. It appeared that the self-concept of many children was negatively affected by:

1. Their inability to read grade-level texts

2. The reporting system that marked them below average (D) or failing (F)

3. The retention system, which threatened them throughout all grades.

The poor self-image that developed and the concomitant negative attitude toward schooling in general meant that they were unmotivated and difficult to teach, even for the most able and dedicated teachers. It appeared to be a vicious circle and the blame could not be fixed.

Primary teachers worked hard with whatever materials were made available to them. Often they had too many students. Because there were no other accommodations for them, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, and other handicapped children were included in the regular classroom. Problems obviously started at the primary level. Children who were considered far below the norm were failed, and others were sent on to struggle with increasingly difficult materials each year in an inflexible graded system. Each teacher was provided texts on the given grade level, but the achievement span grew wider each year.

The need to individualize instruction was obvious. However, traditional facilities, organization, methods, materials, and curricula based on norms were not conducive to the idea. During the evaluation, the following questions were raised:

1. Would there be fewer failures if a less rigid organizational structure were established, and would teachers be less likely to judge a child's performance against a grade-level norm in an ungraded structure?

2. Would teachers be less textbook oriented if a variety of supplementary materials were available?

3. Could an analytic approach to beginning reading be modified

through in-service training and the provision of materials designed for teaching decoding as a basic word-attack skill?

4. Could supportive personnel be deployed in such a way that teacher behavior would be affected in a positive manner?

5. Would a modified system of reporting to parents be accepted by teachers and parents?

6. Would any of the above make a significant difference in the number of yearly failures and/or dropouts?

Principals, remedial reading teachers, and central office personnel explored ways and means of determining answers to questions raised during the evaluation process. Experimentation was discussed as an alternative. Principals seemed ready, even eager in some instances, to investigate alternative organizational structures, curricular materials, instructional strategies, and staffing patterns in a search for productive ways to use available resources.

The problem was how to bring about significant changes within the classrooms where many of the problems appeared to be generated and aggravated. Massive changes of an organizational nature were considered necessary, but there was also a need for structural, attitudinal, and curricular change. A single supervisor from the central office, in which some measure of authority is usually vested, could not presume to undertake a task of such magnitude. Because of the time required for administration and public relations work, a principal, regardless of how knowledgeable and perceptive he or she might be about instruction, would be unable to devote the necessary time to the classroom or to the analysis of objective data. What was needed was on-site in-service education on an individualized basis. In-service courses delivered by colleges did not address the kinds of problems encountered within the system, nor could they deliver the required service to the classroom.

The remedial reading teacher could provide the help and service needed if the principal and the staff would accept the idea. The principal was generally open to the concept, but was also aware of the restraints that might be encountered. The traditionally closed-door classroom and independent and isolated teacher were potential inhibiting factors. An administrative assistant might pose a threat, whereas a person in a supportive role most likely would not. Thus the "helping teacher" term, still used in most of the schools where the concept originated, was employed to indicate a supportive role and to avoid the

supervisory connotation or image. Nevertheless, helping teachers did serve as a link for supervision. Their daily contact with teachers and children in the classroom setting and their skillful diagnosis of educational problems provided valuable input for program analysis and decision making.

Although a number of curricular and organizational changes occurred, the major changes could be classified as methodological and attitudinal. Teachers and teacher performance became the focus of attention. The helping teachers, identified originally by their success in the classroom, exhibited those characteristics contributing to a social-emotional climate in the classroom that appeared to enhance academic achievement.[2] They had a positive influence on students' attitudes, and students generally achieved at a higher level in their classrooms. It was recognized, however, that change in educational practices depended upon teachers' acceptance of innovations and their willingness and ability to implement change. Thus, other qualities or characteristics needed by helping teachers included the ability to develop a similar relationship with adults—one of acceptance, one that inspired confidence and generated trust and openness.

During the first year of this time period, remedial reading teachers were permitted to explore the helping teacher role, testing their effectiveness by working a part of the school day in cooperation with classroom teachers while continuing the remedial program on a limited basis. The following year, one of them elected to be reassigned to a classroom teaching position. The others, with the encouragement of their principals and the supervisory staff in the central office, accepted the helping teacher role and the duties ascribed to it. The following phenomena were observed:

1. New teachers tended to be more receptive to the advice and assistance of the helping teacher than were the experienced ones. Teachers were not generally accustomed to the idea that if a child did not learn to read ineffective teaching was at fault. They had been trained to anticipate such a phenomenon and to attribute it to a lack of readiness, low intelligence, and/or a concert of psychological, sociological, or physical causes. They were inclined to accept the idea that slow learners or problem readers required more time and expertise than a teacher could be expected to provide. This attitude on the part of

[2] See Appendix A.

teachers appeared to be common and widespread. Its manifestation was subtle. Seldom was it overtly expressed.

2. Experienced teachers were sometimes reluctant to accept guidance and assistance from a fellow teacher, especially a younger and less experienced one. To some it posed a threat to their self-image. Many wondered what other teachers would think. Initially, it appeared that only the secure and self-confident teachers sought the assistance of the helping teacher.

3. Principals who had a strong instructional background perceived where help and guidance were most needed and, in effect, paved the way for the helping teacher in cases where invitations were not forthcoming.

4. A personable manner and adroitness in interpersonal relations, coupled with professional competence, enabled a helping teacher to establish a positive image of the role, to eradicate suspicion and fear, and to foster acceptance among the faculty.

5. The rigid graded structure did not provide the needed flexibility to accommodate pupils with differing learning patterns and rates. The helping teacher helped to dispel or alleviate the perceived pressure to have all or most children complete graded texts at a predetermined time.

6. Much of the helping teacher's time and attention was directed toward assisting children who had not learned to live and work together and teachers who lacked classroom management techniques. Some children were hostile, disruptive, and rude, sometimes defiant or aggressive. Teachers reacted frequently in ways that aggravated and compounded the problem: they gave additional work, scolded, and/or threatened, sent children to stand or sit outside the door or to the principal's office. Other children were withdrawn, insecure, unhappy, or unresponsive in the classroom. They appeared to have no friends, no aspirations, and little hope for the future. Because they seldom caused trouble in the classroom, they got little attention. Target (ESEA) children came from both of these groups. It was uncommon to see a child whose academic performance was weak who did not also exhibit symptoms of personality disorder.

7. One of the most critical tasks faced by the helping teacher was teacher behavior modification, without which in many instances, other assistance within the classroom was unproductive. Occasionally,

the classroom teacher was impressed by the changed behavior of the child in the presence of the helping teacher and sought to learn the reason underlying the change. This opened an avenue of communication enabling the helping teacher to point out that disturbing behavior is sometimes caused by fear or a drive to be recognized as a worthwhile being, that most children exhibiting negative behavior have negative images of themselves and that often such negative self-images are reinforced in the classroom.

Other teachers, however, appeared not to notice or were inclined to suspect the child of trying to make the teacher look bad by being interested and cooperative only for the helping teacher. It was true that some of the same children who worked diligently and productively for the helping teacher argued and talked aloud during class, refused to do assignments, and were generally disruptive for the classroom teacher. It was difficult for the regular teacher to see that the nature and difficulty of the task could trigger such negative behavior; that a teacher's manner and voice could be abrasive; that a teacher's lack of preparation, organization, or consistency could foster poor attitudes and slovenly work habits; and that if children did not get a sense of satisfaction from their work and had nothing to look forward to after their chores were finished no one could get much work from them.

8. Grades for some children provided a degree of motivation: some found them ego-building, others were fearful of reprisals or reproach on the part of parents. Teachers often used grades as an inducement to study or to control behavior. For many children, however, there appeared to be nothing that would awaken their interest in school work.

Helping teachers, in contrast, did not compare one child with another or with the group, and because of this, grades were unnecessary. What they did was help children develop an interest in their tasks by keeping track of daily or weekly progress. Such evidence of success appeared an important influence on students whose habit it was to exert only a half-hearted effort toward a task before giving up entirely. It served to remind them that, with persistence, they could master a skill. The fact that mastery took longer for some children than for others was accepted by helping teachers as normal and to be expected. Also expected, however, was eventual mastery of certain critical skills. These children could and would learn. The patience, persistence, and tenacity exhibited by the helping teachers in the face of slow or imperceptible

progress and their cheerful, optimistic, but firm manner with such children was a model for teachers whose pattern of behavior consistently demonstrated the low expectations they held for these children.

9. Teachers gave credit to helping teachers for the courage, and sometimes the inspiration, to make significant changes in their classrooms, changes that involved the use of different materials and techniques and required modified perceptions and behavior.

10. Administrators credited helping teachers with modeling and nurturing in others a philosophical attitude toward children and the learning-teaching process, one that had a sound psychological basis and was necessary to the development of wholesome attitudes in children.

11. Helping teachers became responsible for assisting teachers with research projects relative to new methods and materials; for disseminating information about new ideas, materials, and techniques; and for providing appropriate in-service training within the individual schools.

12. Qualified personnel within the division were recommended for placement on the staff of colleges and universities in order that credit could be granted for appropriate in-service classes, specifically those related to teaching reading and diagnosis and remediation in reading.

13. The elementary supervisor role was modified to accommodate the new system. Whereas regular and somewhat generalized classroom observation for the purpose of monitoring the instructional program had been a major responsibility prior to this time period, analysis of instructional problems encountered by the helping teachers became a task of importance. The helping teachers met on a regular basis with the elementary supervisor and the coordinator of the federal programs. Divisionwide in-service training thus became limited mainly to administrative personnel and the helping teachers.

In this way, a communications network was devised to provide meaningful two-way communication, and the role of supervision was modified to include planning, research, and development functions. The helping teachers, an integral part of the supervisory system, helped provide a capacity for internal reform. Although the job description was modified according to the needs of each individual school, it remained about the same as originally described.[2] Teachers and principals found

[2] The original duties, as listed in the guidelines for the Title I program, can be found in Appendix B.

that the in-service training provided on site by persons who knew the needs of each individual teacher was far superior to the traditional in-service training courses and programs they had previously experienced.

Appendix A

Characteristics considered to be of value in the helping teacher role included:

1. A positive attitude toward self and others and an unshakable confidence in the educational process
2. A sound educational philosophy and the inclination and ability to promote it
3. Facility in human relations, an understanding of organizational behavior, and effective ways of getting things done in cooperation with other adults
4. A sensitivity and awareness that enable one to have empathy with others and the ability to inspire and instill confidence in them
5. An openness and approachability that inspire trust and confidence
6. A contagious enthusiasm for life and learning that tends to encourage others to experiment and try new ideas and proves to teachers and students alike that learning is an exciting experience
7. The tendency to listen with an open mind and to learn from others, a broad educational background, the ability to be a perpetual student of life
8. The quality of magnanimity. The helping teacher must not be concerned about who receives credit for good ideas but must be satisfied to plan them and to remain anonymous after they have germinated in another's mind and flowered into practice in some classroom.
9. Competency as a teacher. Qualification cannot substitute for competency in this role. It involves more than observing and consulting; it requires collaboration, a sharing in an intellectual production.

Appendix B

Duties for helping teachers listed in the guidelines were:

1. Share with the principal the leadership role in instruction and curriculum improvement
2. Coordinate the instructional program
3. Assist the staff in defining educational needs or action that will affect them
4. Serve as a resource person and major contributor to staff morale
5. Keep the staff well informed of actions that are being taken in behalf of teachers

6. Demonstrate how up-to-date materials can be used in contributing to solutions of educational problems

7. Help teachers work out with pupils, parents, or other teachers difficulties related to educational matters

8. Establish in-service training within the staff for maintenance and renewal of teacher competencies

9. Help teachers develop techniques for assessing a variety of types of pupil growth

10. Develop staff interest by bringing teachers into the evaluation process, by forwarding challenging ideas, and by having the staff involved in program development

11. Listen to the comments, opinions, and suggestions of all staff members

12. Help the staff to locate and utilize the various types of talent present among its members

13. Be responsible for programs for Title I children

14. Develop baseline data for Title I children, both pretest and post-test, as part of the evaluation of the Title I program

15. Be responsible for teacher aides':
    a. In-service training
    b. Assignments
    c. Evaluations.

Chapter 10

COMPETENCY-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT

David H. Long

CONVENTIONAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT efforts tend to be sporadic and disjointed, with minimal impact on teacher effectiveness in the classroom and/or the professional climate within an educational environment. Professionals in North Carolina who participate in traditional in-service activities are primarily motivated by either the carrot of renewal credit or advanced certification. Once sufficient credits are earned to attain their goal, active involvement in workshops, summer institutes, minicourses, and evening classes begins to wane. The commitment to a mission on continuing professional growth neither exists, nor could exist, under our present staff development program.

Dwight W. Allen views in-service teacher training as being the most indefensible, tradition-bound practice in American education.

> Such training as there is seems to be guided by two mutually incompatible perspectives: (a) in-service training as relevant to the upgrading of teachers' professionalism and classroom performance; (b) in-service training as a convenient way to pile up units, which will move a teacher horizontally across the pay schedule. . . . ironically, the ultimate goal of current in-service training . . . seems to be to move teachers out of the classroom, rather than to improve their effectiveness within it.[1]

Edward J. Meade, Jr., shares Allen's views. He maintains that

[1] Dwight W. Allen. "In-Service Teacher Training: A Modest Proposal." In: Louis J. Rubin, editor. *Improving In-Service Education.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971. pp. 109-10.

evidence indicates there is no positive correlation between traditional in-service training and the quality of classroom instruction.

> Massive evidence exists to explode the myth that there is a positive correlation between amount of traditional training and quality of performance in the classroom. . . . It is also clear . . . that tying salary to accumulated units works to the disadvantage of both the in-service program and the educational system as a whole. It offers an incentive that debilitates the educational value of professional growth, and it fails to provide any tangible reward for better teaching performance.[2]

Educational leaders have long known that traditional in-service programs have little impact on actual teaching practices and techniques. A study conducted for the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth substantiates this point.

> Interviews . . . conducted with 72 teachers who had participated in a Westchester, New York, summer program . . . [showed] that, "once the teachers . . . returned to their regular classrooms . . . , many . . . of the plans of the previous summer were forgotten. . . . The number of changes carried over into the regular year by . . . teachers . . . was slight."[3]

Since the existing staff development activities are primarily initiated by the administrative staff, it is highly unlikely that they specifically meet the professional development needs of individual teachers and administrators. At best, most professionals are only topically involved in planning in-service activities. Usually they are either asked to submit topics of interest or to indicate their preference for a specific in-service offering that is identified by central office staff. Ultimately, regardless of the initial route, very few professionals in the field contribute any significant input to the substance of in-service activities.

In viewing this same thought in a different perspective, Edward J. Meade, Jr., feels that in-service education suffers from the sins of omission as well as of commission.

> The list of what has been left undone is long and varied, and in the vacuum created by these failures, often trivial and inconsequential substitutes have flourished.[4]

This format of distant involvement closely parallels conventional teaching practices, where the student is conceived of as an individual

[2] Edward J. Meade, Jr., "No Health in Us," *ibid.*, p. 216.

[3] Martin Buskin, "Putting the Screws to In-Service Training," *School Management* 14: 22-23, September 1970. Excerpted with the permission of the publisher. This article copyrighted © 1970 by Macmillan Professional Magazines, Inc. All rights reserved.

[4] Edward J. Meade, *op. cit.*, p. 211.

who at best should have only topical input into his or her instructional program. Few instructional settings actively seek student involvement in all stages of the learning process. Perhaps if we involved teachers and administrators in their own professional development in the same way in which we expect them to involve students, we would ultimately have an instructional program that is student centered.

Philip W. Jackson refers to this topical involvement as the "defect approach" to in-service training.

> It begins with a judgment of weakness . . . and proceeds to suggest a remedy for correcting that weakness, usually through a training program designed to change specific aspects of the teacher's behavior in the classroom. . . . Permeating this view is the notion that someone knows more about how the teacher should behave in his classroom than he does himself. . . . the defect position partakes of one of the most enduring of all conceptions of the educational process . . . in which the student is seen as essentially helpless and the teacher as omniscient.[5]

It is our position that learning (changes in behavior) is the overall goal of staff development. Such changes are more likely to occur when in-service experiences have meaning to the learner (helpee) and are not perceived as being threatening to the individual. Carl Rogers observed that "significant learning occurs more readily in reference to situations perceived as problems."[6] It therefore seems advisable that we focus staff development efforts on helping individuals resolve in a way free of personal threat the problems they perceive to be relevant to their situation.

The Competency-Based Staff Development Model

The primary thrust of the Competency-Based Staff Development program is to meet the professional development needs of each participating teacher and administrator. No attempt is made to impose any one specific instructional or administrative strategy or technique as being the best or the only way for everyone. The focus is upon the individual; developmental efforts are approached from each individual's frame of reference.

[5] Philip W. Jackson, "Old Dogs and New Tricks: Observations on the Continuing Education of Teachers." In: *Improving In-Service Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

[6] George Gazda, *Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973, p. 6.

The establishment of a helping relationship places the helper in a facilitative role. Before a helpee can learn new behaviors or work toward a goal, exploration of self must be undertaken. The helpee must be fully aware of the problems before beginning to change behavior, and the helper must assist in this endeavor. "In exploring himself, the person seeking help is attempting to understand his different feelings about himself. The only purpose for exploration is understanding."[7] When we understand our own behavior and its consequences, we are able to learn new behaviors that will result in more favorable consequences. In acting, people decide how to get from where they are to where they want to be.[8] The consequences of actions taken provide the helpee with the appropriate feedback that stimulates further self-exploration. This, in turn, leads to more accurate self-understanding. "Real understanding, then, comes from the learning that follows action."[9] With the helper serving as a facilitator, the process of exploration, understanding, and action can recycle itself until the helpee is satisfied with the consequences of his or her own actions.

The competence base for this model rests upon five characteristics:[10]

1. All staff development efforts are focused upon the learner (teacher or administrator). Each individual is totally involved in making decisions as to which strategy should be utilized to develop a specific competency. In short, these efforts are a reflection of his/her personality. Behavior is self-directed.

2. Instructional modules or professional development packets are prepared for each participant relevant to his/her own unique situation. They consist of strategies and activities designed to help the teacher or administrator attain his/her professional development goals. They are criterion referenced; this provides information as to the degree of competence attained by a particular participant, independent of reference to performance of others. Competencies may be developed and assessed on three types of criteria: knowledge, performance, and consequences.

3. Time is perceived as a variable. As participants begin to develop strategies, target dates are established for the attainment of various objectives viewed to be essential to the attainment of a stated competency. Target dates are flexible and can be modified as the need arises.

[7] Robert R. Carkhuff. *The Art of Helping: A Guide for Developing Helping Skills for Parents, Teachers, and Counselors*. Boston: Human Resources Development Press, 1973, p. 8.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[10] Phyllis D. Hamilton. *Competency-Based Teacher Education*. Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, 1973, p. 9.

4. Developmental activities are field-centered. Emphasis is placed upon the participants' performance in either simulated or real settings. Simulated conditions are utilized to reduce the high risk element. Real settings are utilized as one becomes more proficient.

5. The emphasis is upon exit rather than entrance requirements. Any individual who has a genuine need may become involved. Once involved, exit criteria are jointly established with each participant so that all parties concerned may know when one's goal has been attained.

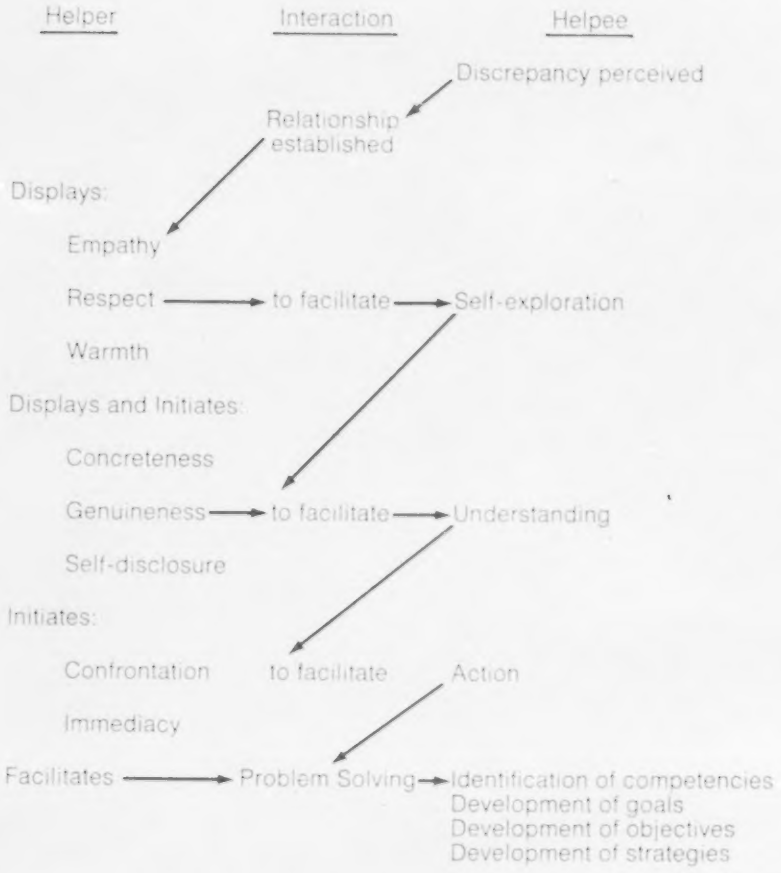
Several approaches to identifying teacher competencies have been promoted, ranging from program translation (reformulation of current courses) to the theoretical base (a hypothesis of what constitutes good teaching). W. Robert Houston has observed that "thousands of research studies have contributed little to the science of teacher education or to the identification of crucial competencies for teachers."[11] Thus, it is not difficult to understand why there has been such divergence over the identification of teacher competencies.

It is conceivable that a staff development (in-service) competency-based program could develop a listing of professional competencies essential to the fulfillment of the educational process and use these as a yardstick to measure each professional. The end result would be a listing that would serve as an evaluative device instead of a means of promoting professional development. It does not take a crystal ball to see that such a listing would be detrimental to creating an atmosphere of continual professional growth.

In lieu of developing a laundry list of professional competencies, we have elected to take a learner-based approach. The learner or helpee perceives a discrepancy between what is and what should be. His/her perception is gross in nature. By acting in a facilitative manner, the helper is able to assist the helpee to develop or become more proficient in a specific competency or competencies. In the final analysis, it is the helpee who identifies the competencies needed to remedy the problem situation. Graphically, the learner-based approach would appear as follows:

In making a transition from staff development for renewal credits to staff development for professional growth, we must consider two factors that may discourage professional participation. Under ideal conditions, we would anticipate that all professional personnel would have

[11] W. Robert Houston, "Designing Instructional Systems for Performance-Based Education Programs." Presented at the Invitational Conferences on Performance-Based Teacher Education, University of Houston, Texas, November 1972-April 1973.



a continuing drive or an earnest desire for tuning up or sharpening present competencies or acquiring new competencies. The reality is that teachers and administrators are busy people. Robert Roth [12] concluded in a study completed at the University of Oregon that primary teachers work an average of 43.9 hours a week; intermediate teachers, 47.8 hours; junior high school teachers, 47.1 hours; and high school teachers, 51.1 hours. When family obligations, church and community interests, and the need for rest and relaxation are factored in, there remains little time for professional development.

[12] Robert R. Roth. "A Study of the Use of Teacher Time in Oregon Public Schools." *Bulletin of the Oregon School Council*, March 1965, p. 22.

The concept of change presents at best a mildly threatening situation because it tends to disrupt the status quo. The person's tendency to live by habit and to be comfortable with the familiar makes adjustment to new circumstances difficult. "To rethink, retool, come to grips with fresh ideas and issues, solve the ever present dichotomies in an ever changing society is a severely difficult task."[13] And this is exactly what we are asking participants to do—to rethink, retool, grasp fresh ideas, and recognize and correct discrepancies.

To resolve the first problem, allowances must be made for the professional staff to engage in developmental activities during the normal working day. A number of approaches could be utilized to make this possible. The "Thursday-is-for-thinking" concept, where students are in school for four days a week as opposed to five, has been tried in several areas. The employment of permanent substitutes to rotate through a school system to relieve teachers of classroom duties for brief periods of time has also been tried. Other approaches, such as early dismissal of students and utilizing community volunteers could be tested to provide individuals with adequate time for professional development activities.

Conventional staff development efforts require educators to rethink, retool, and grasp fresh ideas, but administrative personnel have only made superficial efforts to look into these endeavors as they are perceived by those they are purporting to help. Consequently, problems have been identified and solutions discovered before the helpee is even consulted. This problem of conditioning participants from a passive to an active role in their professional development must be considered. Feedback must be provided to them, not in a judgmental vein but as a source of information, so that individuals may judge for themselves whether or not an imbalance or disequilibrium exists. A person who receives data in this way is more likely to be motivated to restore a balanced condition through a retooling, rethinking, and/or a grasping of new techniques and strategies. Once individuals are aware that they can set the stage for their own professional growth, the helper must assist them to explore themselves in relationship to the perceived problem, to develop better understanding of the problem, and to facilitate the action or problem-solving stage of the helping process.

[13] Joseph E. Bryson, "Man's Greatest Dilemma: Our Rapidly Changing Society." Presented at the Sixth Annual Executive Institute ("The Management of Change"). Greensboro: University of North Carolina, February 1973.

The Helping Process

Good teachers, or for that matter good administrators, are made, not born. This making (learning) process occurs when human beings interact with their environment.

> . . . learning comes about mainly through interacting with fellow human beings, who themselves constitute a principal source of motivations, punishments, and rewards. The quantity and quality of these interpersonal relationships greatly influence each person's unique . . . development.[14]

Primarily because of previously established interpersonal relationships, we have grown into what we are today. Tomorrow's behaviors will be shaped through our evaluational interaction in tomorrow's environment with tomorrow's people.

To bring about new behaviors, tomorrow's helpers must be able effectively to facilitate human growth through good interpersonal processes. Research conducted by Robert Carkhuff and others has shown that empathy, respect, warmth, genuineness, self-disclosure, concreteness, confrontation, and immediacy of relationship demonstrated by the helper are core conditions to effective interpersonal processes. The helper's level of functioning in these areas will significantly influence the helpee's growth as the helper guides the helpee through the cycle of helping.

The helpee's growth is also subject to other factors. Both helper and helpee approach a situation with biological as well as psychological needs. Each will have his/her own set of values as well as personal feelings. The helper has perceptions of self, the helpee, the problem, and of the entire situation (standards, roles, expectancies). The helpee has a similar range of perceptions.

In order for the helper to be effective in assisting the helpee resolve the problem, the helper must be able accurately to perceive the behavior of the helpee. Factors such as expectations, prejudices, or fears that are present in both the helper and helpee can distort the accuracy of their perceptions. Faulty perceptions can lead to interpersonal conflicts and interpersonal barriers that restrict the effectiveness of the helper-helpee interaction.

Once interaction begins, the helper is responsible for establishing a good working interpersonal relationship. Such relationships may be fostered through verbal and nonverbal attending and responding be-

[14] Gazda, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

haviors that convey the core conditions of the helping process. A working relationship built on a solid base will enable the helper satisfactorily to attain all three helping goals. The helper's first goal is to facilitate the helpee's self-exploration of the problem. Before the helper can be of benefit to the helpee, he/she must not only understand the problem in depth but must also see it from the helpee's perspective. Likewise, the helpee must be fully aware of the problem and its ramifications before becoming fully involved in the solution. The second goal of helping is to facilitate helpee self-understanding. As the helpee presents the helper with bits and pieces of information, it is the helper's job to put them together in such a way that the helpee can begin to understand himself/herself and the problem more fully. Once the helpee has a greater understanding of the problem, he/she will be in a better position to develop a course of action—the final goal of helping. Both helper and helpee should jointly consider probable solutions to the problems. They should consider the various implications of each and decide accordingly. The helper should guide the developmental stage of the helpee; that is, the helpee must experience a series of successful actions that will ultimately lead to the resolution of the problem.

> The goals of exploration, understanding, and action are related to each other. After the helpee has acted upon his understanding of the problem, he finds out the consequences of his action. That is he learns new things. He comes to explore and understand more of himself and his problem. As he understands more of himself, he prepares to act once again in a way somewhat different from the way he acted before. Again there is new learning that comes from his action. Often the cycle of exploration, understanding, and actions is repeated over and over again.[15]

When the helper enables the helpee to understand and act on the problem, he/she is being an effective helper.

Helpers will increase their effectiveness as facilitators if they can learn to attend, respond, initiate, and communicate in a timely and accurate manner. Attending behaviors go beyond physical acts such as body position and posturing. Helpers must also attend psychologically. They must give helpees their full and undivided attention. The maintenance of eye contact is one way to convey such attentiveness. Through fully attending to the helpee they become secure. This feeling of security enhances involvement in the helping process. Before helpers

[15] Robert R. Carkhuff, "Helping and Human Relations: A Brief Guide for Training Lay Helpers," *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 4: 17-27, Winter 1971.

can respond to helpees, they must first listen very carefully to be sure that they have an accurate perception of a helpee's statement. Since the helpee is communicating both verbally and nonverbally, helpers need to use all of their senses to perceive the message accurately.

Just as the helpee can communicate through verbal as well as nonverbal behaviors, the helper can respond in a similar manner. The level of the helper's response can be detrimental to solving the problem; reflect the helpee's feelings on the same level on which they were communicated; or be additive—help the helpee understand the problem more fully.

> It certainly is not too much to expect that [the helper] at least be able to communicate to the helpee what he has communicated to [the helper]. Understanding what the helpee has expressed—at the level he has expressed it—constitutes the only basis for helping.[16]

Initially, the helper's responses should focus upon how the helpee feels. Such responses should be made only after the helper has an accurate perception of the helpee's feelings. As meaning becomes clearer, the helper should respond with both feeling and meaning. "The important thing is not what words [the helper] employ[s] but how [he or she] enter[s] the helpee's frame of reference to understand the feeling and meaning which [the helpee] has expressed."[17]

There are several ways in which helpers may cultivate the helper-helpee relationship. They can convey empathy or understanding by letting helpees know what they have seen. Helpers can also demonstrate to helpees that they believe in the helpees' worth and potential. Carkhuff has observed that "without respect by the helper for some critical helpee characteristic, helping is not possible."[18] If one can convey empathy and respect, then warmth should follow. Truax and Carkhuff view warmth as ". . . accepting [one] as a separate person and, thus, a willingness to share equally his joys and aspirations or his depressions and failures. It involves valuing the patient as a person, separate from any evaluation of his behavior or thoughts."[19] The helper should also seek

[16] Carkhuff, *Art of Helping*, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 82.

[18] Robert R. Carkhuff, *Helping and Human Relations: A Primer for Lay and Professional Helpers. Volume I: Selection and Training*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969, p. 180, as quoted by Gazda, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

[19] C. B. Truax and Robert R. Carkhuff, *Toward Effective Counseling and Therapy: Training and Practice*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967, p. 58, as quoted by Gazda, *op. cit.*, pp. 48-49.

to be specific with the helpee, sharing relevant feelings and experiences in concrete terms. According to Carkhuff, "concreteness is a catalyst that makes possible full exploration of relevant problem areas."[20]

By responding to the helpee's feelings and displaying empathy, respect, warmth, and concreteness, the helpee will be able to sustain his/her own self-exploratory behavior without helper assistance. Once this occurs, the helper should move to the initiative phase of the helping process.

> The helper will be most effective if he uses what he learned by responding to the helpee as a basis for initiating his own expressions. That is, on the basis of what the helper learned from the helpee's exploration of his problem, the helper tries to put the picture together. The helper gives the process direction, attempting to get the helpee to understand himself at a deeper level and finally to act upon this understanding.[21]

As the helper-helpee relationship materializes, the helper's response must cause helpees to assume responsibility for their own role in their problems. Once helpees can assume this responsibility, they are capable of looking at themselves in relationship to where they want to be. Through additive interaction, helpers are able to bring helpees to awareness of themselves, their problems, and the goals they must establish.

In the initiative phase, the helper must be genuine with the helpee: "... one of the potentially critical contributions of genuineness is the respect that it communicates—we are most genuine with those for whom we care most."[22] If helpers can effectively convey a caring, loving, and understanding feeling for helpees and their problems in the earlier stages of helping, then genuineness can also be conveyed. When helpers are genuine, they may disclose personal feelings or wants that will facilitate the helpees' exploration, understanding, and action on their problems. Self-disclosure stimulates a closer and deeper understanding between helper and helpee.

In the later stages of helping, the helper may employ a confrontation strategy to inform the helpee there is a discrepancy that needs to be resolved. It is not always necessary to apply a confrontation technique to the helping process if the helper has been effective in formulating additive responses. Gazda points out three possible levels of con-

[20] Carkhuff, p. 181, as quoted by Gazda, *op. cit.*, p. 49.
[21] Carkhuff, "Helping and Human Relations," *op. cit.*, pp. 20-21.
[22] Carkhuff, p. 184, as quoted by Gazda, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

frontation. The least threatening situation exists when helpers inform helpees of discrepancies in things they have been saying about themselves. A more threatening situation exists when helpers point out that discrepancies exist in what helpees are saying and in what others have said they have done or are doing. Confrontation is most threatening when helpees are confronted with a discrepancy between what they said they do and the behavior they display with helpers.[23] Carkhuff has pointed out that "confrontation may be directed either toward a helpee's resources or his limitations."[24] Regardless of the direction of the confronting actions of helpers, they must stick with helpees, helping them resolve the discrepancies that become visible.

The ability of helpers to follow through and work out differences is dependent upon the immediacy of the relationship between helper and helpee. With the establishment of a strong base, both individuals can resolve confrontations through effective interpersonal relations. Neither one will need to try to interpret what the other has implied or insinuated if they have an in-depth understanding that comes from an immediacy relationship.

In the end, helpers will be most effective when they have successfully enabled helpees to develop a strategy for handling their problems. Subsequent actions on the part of the helpee should be carefully directed to ensure all reasonable elements of success. New actions stimulate further self-exploration leading to new understandings. The actions generated by this new understanding causes recycling to occur until the helpee is satisfied with the consequences of his/her actions.

Legal Parameters

Since the concept of a competency-based staff development model is relatively new and innovative, some consideration should be given to the legal restraints influencing such a model. In North Carolina, the control of professional certification is in the hands of the State Board of Education. This means that the ultimate responsibility for providing guidelines governing staff development activities resides with the State Board. This duty, like most of its obligations, is transferable to the Department of Public Education.

Acting within the scope of its authority, the Division of Staff

[23] Gazda, *op. cit.*, p. 52.
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 52.

Development of the State Department of Public Instruction has developed guidelines and procedures providing for state approval of local in-service education programs. In providing for professional growth, administrative units must conform to state guidelines if they want formal state recognition of in-service activities. The local superintendents are charged with providing professional growth opportunities for their staffs. Teachers, including student teachers, substitute teachers, teachers' aides, and assistants, all have a duty to enter actively into the plans of the superintendent for their professional growth.

It is conceivable that the proposed competency-based staff development model could be utilized to evaluate the performance of a professional or nonprofessional. In the absence of local board policy, there are no state statutes or State Board policies pertaining to the evaluation of the nonprofessional. The Teacher Tenure Act deals with the evaluation of a professional. The manner in which the evaluation is to be implemented and utilized is left primarily to the discretion of the local board. In most cases in North Carolina, the evaluation is conducted by the building principal. However, in the absence of local board policy, the credentials or identity of the evaluator are not specifically stated. This means that one's own peers could conduct the evaluation.

Regardless of the identity of the evaluator, the results of the evaluation conducted for the documentation of one's competence to attain career status must be filed in the office of the superintendent. Even if the evaluation is not for the intended purpose of establishing one's competency in relationship to the attainment of career status, each participant who chooses to participate in the CBSD model may designate that the documented evidence attesting to his/her professional growth be filed in the superintendent's office as a matter of record.

Chapter 11

ALTERNATIVE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Larry S. Bowen

AS AN EDUCATIONAL ALTERNATIVE in the beginning stages of development, Southeastern Laboratory School in Hammond, Louisiana, cannot be held up as a model product. Rather, it is a model of a process of becoming and the way a staff is developing. The curriculum of the school is consistent with the neoprogressive or open educational movement of the past decade. Frazier [1] has conceptualized open education in his treatment of the new freedom and new fundamentalism movements. SLS is directed primarily toward the former, both in curriculum and staff development.

SLS is not an alternative either in the sense of the free school, as Riordan [2] describes the Cambridge Pilot School and the Metro High School, or in the sense of a nonschool arrangement as advocated by Ivan Illich. The alternative is instead a laboratory school intended as a setting for research and experimentation in open education. Historically, like hundreds of laboratory schools around the nation, it has existed more for several other purposes, such as observation, student teaching, and the education of faculty members' children. A commitment by the University's administration to its development as a center of inquiry brought the author to the K-8 school as its director several months ago.

[1] Alexander Frazier. *Open Schools for Children*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972. pp. 60-61.

[2] Robert Riordan. *Alternative Schools in Action*. Phi Delta Kappa Fastback, No. 11. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972.

Staff Change

The dean of a prestigious college of education stated recently that much of the models and literature relating to educational change seems of questionable worth to practitioners. One very worthwhile contribution to the subject, however, comes from the observations on staff change as studied in the League of Cooperating Schools. Shiman and Lieberman report the change process as consisting of five stages:

1. Disequilibrium
2. Activity
3. Questioning of activity
4. Shabby-looking programs
5. Philosophical question asking.[3]

These stages, which recur again and again and are of great import to natural/open education, are found in other social realms as well. For instance, parents typically go through these stages. They discuss their child's behavior; take some action; question whether what they are doing is effective; and, if they don't like what they are doing, they ask themselves some searching questions about the relationship of what they are doing to larger parental goals. Few parents would seem to engage in the process in reverse order, however logical it may seem to do so. Are those logical parents more effective than the former ones? They may only feel more scientific or rational. Ah, Science!

In teaching, as well as parenting, developing adults demonstrate that, even though they are goal-setting animals, doing (experiencing) precedes goal setting (philosophizing). This empirical finding should be recognized in staff development.

But, as Shiman and Lieberman point out:

> . . . most people involved in the business of effective educational change . . . frequently fail to take these factors into consideration. Instead, they say, "First, we must define and clarify goals," or "First, we must determine priorities," or "First, we must develop the motivation to change," or "First, we must examine and evaluate what is being done." They want to start at *their* beginning and not take the school where it is.[4]

[3] David A. Shiman and Ann Lieberman, "A Non-Model for School Change," *Educational Forum* 38: 441-45; May 1974. Used by permission of Kappa Delta Pi, An Honor Society in Education, Box A, West Lafayette, Indiana, owners of the copyright.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 444.

One would expect experienced educators to know that one starts where the learner (child or adult) is, but efforts of educational change (especially staff development) have been so heavily influenced by the scientific-management/instructional-rationalist camps that the way change occurs in the real world is often ignored. The effective leader of staff development is more of a change artist than change agent. The engineer-agent is possibly more dysfunctional to continuing development than one cares to admit. Such traditional, industrial ways are the fads of our day and must run their course for a number of years.

The SLS commitment, then, is to teacher-centered approaches to staff change. Teachers' interests, problems, and motivations are to be the primary matters of importance—each person having characteristics as unique as those possessed by the learners being taught.

Pluralism Progress

In view of the back-to-basics American obsession, Southeastern Laboratory School is indeed an alternative, developing out of a pluralistic view of education. Pluralism at SLS refers to the diversity of learning communities, relatively autonomous subschools within the school. Efforts to develop learning communities of teachers and children have brought about results that are, at this stage of development, pleasing to see. Cooperation of faculty and children is good, as is the involvement of unpaid parent volunteers and other aides. Sharing is increasingly seen as important, and both children and teachers are sharing themselves with greater comfort. A climate of trust and freedom of movement and choice are noticed by workers, children, and the hundreds of visitors who come to see what is happening. There is noticeable evidence of the capacities of teachers and children to transcend racial, cultural, and socioeconomic differences and to be able to accept the idiosyncracies and values of the 250 youngsters and other teachers. Teacher and child attendance at school is extraordinarily good.

Friendly parents describe the effects of the school in such comments as:

> My child has never particularly wanted to go to school before, but now she gets up at 6:00 a.m., dresses herself, fixes her breakfast, and waits impatiently

for the bus. At night, she insists on sharing her day's experiences by reading something she has written or a book she has brought home.

Older children help younger ones, and the growth in their efforts to care for their school is impressive. Fewer and fewer children are sent to the Director for disciplinary problems.

Children are learning in the primarily informal environment, but some parents still question such arrangements as multi-age learning communities, peer teaching, lay teachers (including pre-student teachers), any noise, activity-centered teaching, and many other characteristics of the open space school and its progressive nature. Providing the appropriate amount of structure for developmentally-different children is a major challenge to the staff. The fundamentals are being learned, problem-solving abilities appear to be improving, and an increased willingness to learn permeates the entire school. We are counting on the children eventually to affect attitudes of parents having difficulty understanding both the function of the laboratory school and the ways of teaching employed.

Staff Development

The term "staff development" is indeed broad in meaning. It refers here to processes and procedures by which adult workers in an elementary school are helped to become more competent in helping children learn. Such a broad definition permits one to choose means consistent with one's beliefs both about how those adults should develop and learn as well as what they should learn.

What are the implications for staff development? Of great importance are the following five implications:

1. *Attending to where teachers are.* Asking what they would like to do if they could, how they would like to do it, and when they believe it could be done puts the load where it should be—on the teacher. The sole behavioral objective is that teachers discuss those questions with each other and determine their own solutions. The principal cannot cop out of such interactions, but for him or her to control the discussions is equally devastating. Responsibility of action must be on teachers. Responsibility for provoking discussion rests with the school administrator as well as the teachers.

2. *Providing the support for those who wish to act.* Supporting and exposing the actions of doers provide a forum for examination of actions. Rewarding the creative efforts of a few persons who are pro-

gressing affects the climate for experimentation. Exposure of efforts gives others the assurance that ideas can be tested. Support requires emotional, intellectual, and financial resources.

3. *Supporting the questioning of teachers who test out new ideas.* In contrast to the prevalent rewarding of right answers to pedagogical and curricular problems, the change artist can keep judgment of attempts open by rewarding verbally and otherwise the reflective efforts of teachers who see themselves as more than instructional strategists. It is good to encourage teachers' questioning of their often long-held answers.

4. *Providing a reality test of the efforts of teachers.* Use of videotapes, value-clarification sessions, children's feedback, and parental concerns and questions gives a picture of the whole that increases the chances of knowing what we have and what we are missing. Southeastern has held learning community rap sessions with parents to gain a better understanding of their concerns. Although somewhat uncomfortable at first, the meetings did serve the purpose of hearing from the patrons and discussing points with them.

5. *Retreating.* When appropriate, teachers need to do what many professors of education would wish them to do, that is, ask philosophical questions concerning the needs of children, the idiosyncrasies of each child, the value of cooperative approaches to teaching, and the degree of oppressiveness or liberation in the school environment.

These five procedural implications, drawn directly from the Shiman and Lieberman sequential stages already mentioned, are ones to which change artists can attend. Each individual has to do it his or her own way. Some persons may enlist help from schools of education and other divisions of higher education, while others will depend more heavily upon outside teachers, principals, and other elementary school personnel. How long each step takes for an individual or group of teachers must be determined by serious listening and observing—but not rushing the process.

Butterflies and Change Artists

I would like to borrow from Philip Jackson[5] in observing that staff development, like children's learning, is more similar to the path

[5] Philip W. Jackson. *Life in Classrooms.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.

of a butterfly than the path of a bullet. There are no laws of human development. People do not always grow in the way model builders might wish. The bullet approach toward staff development risks dangerous consequences, as witness the often disastrous results of in-service education efforts during the past decade and more. The butterfly approach of the British Teacher Centers, on the other hand, is less efficient in terms of the warden's time, but the process is natural and the results gratifying. Unlike the bullet whose direction, speed, and path are predetermined by others, the butterfly creatively directs its flight in a direction important to it.

Teachers must experience success in solving their problems, but they must be helped to avoid disaster. They need assistance from their colleagues as well as guidance from their principal and others responsible for the school. It is naive to assume that teachers, if left alone, can escape interference from the educational community. The intimidation of teachers, on the one hand, or their complete autonomy, on the other, are equally dangerous. Again, the change artist must carefully observe the process and be involved in its developmental stages. To support clearly, firmly, and adequately is the challenge to a staff development change artist.

What I have described may sound simple, and indeed it is from a conceptual point of view. However, as staff members interact with and provoke each other intellectually, socially, and emotionally, the implications are great. Like the flight of the butterfly, staff development may be slow, but the end result is natural human development. Such a view is clearly inconsistent with the industrial education movement of the 70's, but it is too important to be overlooked—difficult as it is to operationalize.

Chapter 12

PUBLIC EVALUATION—AN OVERVIEW

Robert Brinkerhoff

THE EVALUATION RESEARCH CENTER of the University of Virginia has long been interested in promoting citizen involvement in educational reform. It has been our conviction that improvement in public education is best accomplished through meaningful and sustained community participation. However, the Center is also convinced that true citizen involvement is unlikely to occur until the public can believe it has the ultimate responsibility for school success or failure. To this end, we have been exploring methods by which program evaluation techniques might be applied to disseminate school performance information directly to the public.

Evaluation methodology, in general, has recently come of age. Powerful procedures that explicate educational program goals and objectives can also be used to gauge performance toward their achievement. Rarely, however, has such information found its way to the public in any integrated and useful form. In a method called "public evaluation," the Evaluation Research Center has defined a public information and accountability model that might be used both to assess and improve school programs.

In essence, public evaluation is based on a simple function: the plan (intent) of a school program is carefully explained; then, actual progress relative to this plan is reported regularly to the public. This simple basis

derives directly from the Discrepancy Evaluation Model,[1] which has been applied in many management-oriented evaluations of educational programs. Essentially, this model views evaluation as a comparison, the comparison of intent (what was planned) with performance (what actually happened). Differences—known as discrepancies—found to exist by this comparison constitute a need for remedial action.

Of particular applicability to the public sector is this model's sensitivity to and accommodation of differing value perspectives. Standards with which performance may be compared inevitably derive from values. Any public or community will have many differing value perspectives; what is seen as good by one individual or constituency will inevitably be considered bad by another. Since evaluative information derives from assumptions of values, it would appear that efforts to provide such information to a community will necessarily be accepted by those holding similar values and rejected by those whose values were not subsumed in the comparative standard. In application to programs, however, the Discrepancy Model avoids the transmission of judgmental information. The standard against which performance is measured is always the design for that program itself rather than some idealized version of what it should be. Against this standard, subsequent performance is regularly compared, and discrepancies (if any) dutifully reported. Judgments about the seriousness or import of these discrepancies are reserved for the recipient: the public.

The standard—the design or intent—of the program contains information on resources to be allocated, actions to be pursued, persons to be affected, and objectives to be met. As such, it constitutes a primary and critical element in the evaluative process. Without such a standard or design, evaluation findings lose their common referent and necessarily become subject to the vagaries of the reporting agent's values. Thus, the careful and systematic preparation of a program design and its transmission to the public become the first and essential steps in the operation of this school-community feedback scheme.

Indeed, the provision of this program design information alone (even without subsequent reporting of performance), although not recommended, could prove valuable in the interaction of school and public. With such information, the public can assess the relevance of program goals, the sufficiency of resources, the appropriateness of activities, and

[1] Malcolm M. Provus, *Discrepancy Evaluation for Educational Program Improvement and Assessment*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975.

the adequacy of processes to meet specified objectives. In this way, school intentions are mirrored to the public so that judgments about them may be rendered. Such mirroring permits the evaluation to take place prior to the implementation of a program and can also go a long way toward improving the attitude of the public toward the school.

In actual operation in a school district, public evaluation might be carried out as a new type of role in society. The public evaluator, a specially trained and technically supported lay person, would act with the full cooperation of the school board and staff but be supported (if salaried) independently in order to ensure his or her autonomy. Despite this fiscal independence, however, the public evaluator would operate according to a set of guidelines (much as does a CPA) agreed to by all parties in the monitoring system. The public evaluator, aided by local media, would then provide the community with information about school program design and operation, thus increasing the appetite of the public for knowledge about the schools through the presentation of stimulating periodic reports.[5]

Public evaluation is fundamentally unique because it is a way of giving parents and other taxpayers information they have never before received. School evaluation information has traditionally tended to rise in the system; that is, it has been produced by experts in evaluation for other experts, such as program management and funding agencies. Public evaluation is a dramatic reversal of this flow; evaluative information is gathered by trained lay persons and given directly to the public.

The plan is unique in its incorporation of the vitality of the public media through their use as dissemination outlets. It is also unique because of the variety of foci possible; it can be used to troubleshoot special programs lacking support at one time or to report on the entire workings of other school programs. In essence, it is a plan whereby the members of a community, through one of their own citizens, can provide themselves with the information they need to make wise decisions.

Chapter 13

A GRADUATE PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS IN EDUCATIONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Frederick Andelman, Charles S. Clayman

In August 1974, a special workshop was conducted at the Massachusetts Teachers Association's Annual Summer Leadership Conference. The themes of the workshop were the identification of the graduate education needs of teacher leaders and recommendations for advanced graduate programs in educational and organizational leadership. Fifty-three teacher leaders participated in the workshop, which consisted of two seminars at the conference, completion of a project, and participation in a post-conference planning and debriefing meeting.

Workshop projects took several forms: (a) assessments of professional development needs of local association members, (b) the design of specific courses and seminars for advanced graduate study, and (c) outlines for advanced graduate study in educational and organizational leadership.

Rationale

Teacher organizations have the potential for enormous influence on American education. As teacher advocates, they function to support and protect teacher interests. They are also advocates for the improvement of instruction and professional development. At the present time, although programs for school administrators abound, there are few formal and no advanced degree programs at the university level to

assist, support, and train teacher leaders. According to officials at the NEA, the program proposed herein is the first of its kind in the country.

The Lesley College Graduate School of Education, in collaboration with the Massachusetts Teachers Association, recognizes the urgent need to prepare teachers for emerging roles as educational and organizational leaders. Although graduate teacher education programs have a long tradition in higher education, there is a conspicuous lack of programs deliberately designed to enhance the image and role of the teacher as an educational and organizational leader committed to the upgrading of instruction and the profession.

MTA/Lesley is a new concept in teacher education. It rests on the premise that the programs, processes, and decisions regarding teacher education must be made by teachers and teacher educators together in a way that responds to the real needs of professional teachers. MTA/Lesley is a new program in teacher education. It seeks to establish new ways of relating university resources to the needs of teachers at the lowest possible cost.

MTA/Lesley collaboration seeks to establish new models for responding to the expressed needs of teachers. In addition to providing a variety of courses and in-service programs, it now seeks to design graduate programs in educational and organizational leadership for classroom teachers who can assume leadership roles in the classroom, in the schools, in the community, and in the professional organization.

Program Elements

In order to carry out leadership roles in these several contexts, teachers will need to develop and enhance certain knowledge and skills. MTA/Lesley has tentatively identified four areas in which teacher leaders will require training:

1. *Organizations and Politics:* The nature of bureaucratic organizations, community organization and politics, sociology of professions

2. *Organization Development:* The behavior of organizations, planned change, systems analysis, interpersonal and group dynamics, administration and budgeting

3. *Labor Relations:* Collective bargaining, school finance, grievance procedures

4. *Educational Development:* In-service program development and training, needs assessment, educational policy and practices, curric-

ulum development issues and trends, instructional improvement, teacher certification.

Each of the four areas combines theoretical knowledge with problem-oriented field experience. Special interdisciplinary seminars provide opportunities for integration of theory and practice.

For the master's and the CAGS programs, some course work should be taken in each area, plus field experience and the special interdisciplinary seminar. Sample course titles in each of the four programs follow:

I. *Organization and Politics*
   Sociology of the Education Profession
   Political Sociology
   Community Organization
   Formal Organizations
   Social Psychology of Organizations
   Role of Women in the Education Profession

II. *Organization Development*
   Organization Development: Theory and Practice
   Planning for Change in Education
   The Dynamics of Groups
   Interpersonal Communication

III. *Labor Relations*
   Collective Bargaining in Public Employment
   Teacher Organization and Administration
   Grievance Arbitration
   Public School Finance
   Teachers' Legal Rights and Responsibilities
   Massachusetts School Law

IV. *Educational Development*
   In-Service Education Program Planning
   Educational Policy and Practice
   Curriculum Development: Issues and Trends
   Philosophy and Practice of Individualized Instruction
   Teaching the Special Needs Child
   Intergroup/Racial Relations in Education
   The School and Issues in Exceptional Behavior
   Teacher Evaluation.

Chapter 14

PROTOCOL MATERIALS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Donald E. Orlosky

PROTOCOL MATERIALS are recordings of events that occur in the classroom or other school-related settings. The central component of protocols is the record of behavior; but support materials, such as teacher guides, pupil guides, evaluation instruments, and field-test results derived during the course of production of these materials, are important supplements. The record of behavior can be made on film, videotape, audio recording, or print, but most protocols developed to date appear on 16mm color films.

The chief purpose of protocols is to provide for observation and analysis of raw behavior portraying selected concepts that give power and effectiveness to the protocol. Although behavior that is not exemplary of specific concepts might be interesting to observe, its educational value soon diminishes. Therefore, protocol materials focus on giving instances of behavior portraying selected concepts that enable pre- or in-service teachers to observe, study, and classify behavior. This focus of protocols is stated in the introduction to the 1975 edition of the Protocol Catalog.[1]

There is growing recognition of the need to provide assistance to teachers in their effort to understand better what they are doing when they teach. Protocol materials are the kind of aid needed to increase understanding of behavior and

[1] B. Othanel Smith and Donald E. Orlosky. "Introduction." *Protocol Catalog: Materials for Teacher Education.* Tallahassee, Florida: Protocol Materials Project, Department of Education, 1975.

learning by teachers in service as well as those engaged in initial teacher preparation.

An important contribution of protocol materials for teacher preparation is their helpfulness in bridging the oft-noted gap between theory and practice. There is a distinction between training materials which help the trainee acquire specific teaching skills and protocol materials. The latter are designed to supplement abstract presentation of concepts and principles relating to the understanding and interpretation of the behavior of pupils, parents, fellow teachers, and others with whom teachers work. . . .

When using these materials the individuals learn specific concepts which enable them to interpret and diagnose classroom behavior. Usually protocol materials are in audio-film format with written instruction and evaluation aids. They can be used with groups and by individuals.

The importance of materials in teacher education has not received the same attention given to them in other fields of study. Classroom teachers have long recognized the necessity for appropriate instructional materials—whether print, such as books and pamphlets; products, such as Cuisinaire rods; or laboratory supplies, such as beakers and globes. All these are aids to instruction; they serve to bridge the gap between what is known and what is to be learned.

In the field of teacher education, we have tended to rely on textbook learning and actual experience in student or regular teaching, without utilizing materials to assist in other phases of preparation. The materials in any profession provide the means of translating theory and research into knowledge that can be utilized by the practitioner. And since behavior is the entity teachers work with, it seems only sensible that materials displaying behavior for study should be part of the training program. Along with the development of protocol materials, an effort has been made to train personnel in their production and to determine their utility in teacher preparation. As a result, approximately 140 protocols in the areas of teaching competencies, educational psychology, English, and social science, produced with support from the U.S. Office of Education, are now available for general use.

In the original plans to produce protocols, an effort was made to proportion the production between the basic fields of study and pedagogy according to the greatest demand, with the result that about two-thirds of the protocols are being produced in the pedagogical domain and the remainder in the basic fields of study. Criteria for acceptability have been developed in which technical and educational standards are defined. Considerable effort has been directed also to the task of select-

ing concepts and then naming, defining, and listing the behavioral indicators that would exemplify these concepts. This work undergirded the development of protocol materials by grounding production in research, theory, and conventional wisdom. Protocol development has met rigorous standards for concept analysis, portrayal of appropriate behavior according to technical standards, and field testing of information to determine the consequences.

The protocol materials program, begun in 1970 at 12 institutions with support from the U.S. Office of Education, has succeeded in training approximately 150 developers and in producing protocols that prove useful in teacher education. Considerable progress has been made in concept naming and defining, visual reproduction of behavior, field testing of products, and dissemination of materials. Only a beginning has been made in material production, but considerable interest has been shown by teacher education agencies in using protocols in their programs. The Protocol Materials Program has been coordinated by the Leadership Training Institute for Educational Personnel Development, based at the University of South Florida.

Chapter 15

DECENTRALIZATION AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

H. B. Pinkney

> What passes for education today, even in our "best" schools and colleges, is a hopeless anachronism. . . . Yet for all this rhetoric about the future, our schools face backward toward a dying society rather than forward to the emerging new society. Their vast energies are applied to cranking out Industrial Men—people tooled for survival in a system that will be dead before they are.[1]

TOFFLER'S BOOK and many others like it (*Our Children Are Dying, Crisis in the Classroom,* and *Suffer, Little Children,* to name just a few[2]) charge that educators have missed the boat when it comes to educating today's youth. Educators, in turn, point to cultural disadvantage, cultural deprivation, slow learning, and retardation, as the real culprits. But whatever the reason, one thing is clear—our schools today are not turning out good readers or mathematicians.

Teachers will strongly contend that the major problem is large classes and that the most important and perhaps essential step toward improving education, especially urban, is to reduce class size. However, research evidence shows that teacher X with 40 children can in some cases do a superior job to that of teacher Y with ten children. Since there does not seem to be one chance in a thousand that our urban school systems will in the near future increase their education budgets

[1] Alvin Toffler. *Future Shock.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1970. pp. 389-99.

[2] Nat Hentoff. *Our Children Are Dying.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1967; Charles E. Silberman. *Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1970; Max L. Rafferty. *Suffer, Little Children: Reflections on American Education.* Devin-Adair Co., Inc., 1962.

enough to make possible much reduction in class size, we must be realistic. If anything, classes are likely to get larger rather than smaller. For this reason and others, I think we must, through meaningful staff development, try to find ways to free children from their sole dependence on the teacher and to free the teacher from the crushing burden of having to feel responsible for everything learned in the classroom.

Regardless of what we think or say about the current status of public education, evidence exists that children, especially in urban school systems, simply are not learning the basic skills of reading and mathematics. In addition, educational researchers are saying that in some of our large urban areas as high as 50 percent of the children in public schools are absent from the classroom each day. There is even a growing feeling that the education of the streets is more relevant than that of the formal classroom.

So far I have merely been trying to set the stage for an intelligent discussion of decentralization and staff development. One attempt to increase the responsiveness of American urban institutions to their clients is through decentralization of public schools. As a result, a number of systems throughout the country have either decentralized or are in the planning stages of decentralization.

As you perhaps know, the Richmond City School System is now in the second year of decentralization. In my opinion, the central issue is the extent to which this goes beyond the regional or area level to the building level. Decentralization should move most of the decision-making power away from the central office or central board toward the smaller regions or communities, thus making it possible for more of the important decisions to be made by the administrative staff at the regional or area-level.

We have not yet had enough time in Richmond or in many of the other decentralized school systems, such as New York, Detroit, and Washington, D.C., to determine the effectiveness of decentralization. Some educators feel that this kind of reorganization is needed to give new impetus to school divisions and to the instructional programs, but the research evidence so far is that the teaching of reading, mathematics, and other subjects is not substantially improved under decentralization. Where there have been changes or progress, it is difficult to determine the real cause. Any conclusions made to the effect that decentralization changes or improves the educational programs for those served are based on rhetoric rather than research. In many cases, decentralization

has in fact created problems that have led instructional personnel to label it as merely more bureaucracy, void of real meaning or value for the school division.

Far too often, insufficient attention has been given to the importance of carrying decentralization to the individual school. In too many respects, reorganization strengthens power at the area, regional, or district level but fails to extend the concept and/or meaning of decentralization to the local school building. Instructional improvements can occur only at the building level or some other smaller unit. Any assumption that decentralization will automatically improve the instructional program of a school division is therefore erroneous.

With decentralization, there exists a real need for staff development programs that will prepare personnel, especially central and area instructional personnel, for a new or different role or mode of operation. We all know that many teachers and administrators tend to believe that staff development is a waste of valuable time. Nevertheless, staff development or in-service education is potentially one of the most important and effective means of helping administrators and teachers acquire current professional information, improve instruction, and gain a better understanding of the learning process of all children.

Traditionally, staff development (in-service) programs often have been ineffective in spite of substantial investments of time, funds, and consultant services. In many instances, teachers and administrators have found such activities threatening, confusing, or irrelevant. Teachers become confused by staff development programs dealing with techniques or methods that appear to be in conflict with current procedures. Confusion also results when information is presented without practical suggestions for its implementation. Conflicting ideas from consultants become a part of rather than a solution to the problem. Administrators and teachers are also critical of staff development (in-service) programs that they feel are irrelevant to the problems confronting them and the children.

In the past, staff development programs have too often placed emphasis only on teacher deficiencies: planners of such programs have looked for what is wrong rather than what is right with teachers and their teaching. In many instances, administrators' and teachers' interests, desires, and strengths have been ignored or overlooked when staff development programs have been designed.

If we are to move school divisions, especially decentralized systems,

toward meaningful educational programs for children, we must rely upon meaningful staff development programs. Staff development program planners or coordinators should involve their own administrators and teachers to the maximum extent possible in planning and conducting in-service programs. Harris[2] advises that planning should be "undertaken cooperatively, with those persons to be affected by the in-service program involved in all stages of the planning." Research has proved over and over again that administrators and teachers tend strongly to resent and reject any form of staff development that is planned *for* them instead of *with* them.

Decentralization and staff development are interdependent. Once decentralization occurs, meaningful staff development is a necessity in order to avoid the duplication of services and roles by members of the organization. However, we must remember that in any form of organizational structure, the instructional program for the children, and not decentralization, should be the primary focus of a school district. The purpose of schools is to provide a viable education for children rather than a super-organizational structure for those who work there. Unless we are able in the near future to determine objectively through research that decentralization is best for the children in a school division, it is quite possible that decentralization will be merely for the sake of change and not for the sake of improved educational programs.

Through staff development, we must provide the means and ways of assuring an open organizational climate conducive to learning for all children. I am reminded of former Attorney General Ramsey Clark's comment on "Face the Nation": "The most important lesson we have to learn in education is how to live together, not calculus." Through staff development, programs must be planned for administrators and teachers who have the responsibility of providing an open climate conducive to growth and living. There is a continued need for leaders to exchange for truths long-held myths, half-truths, and superstitions about those who may in some ways be different from themselves.

Decentralization may prove to have real merits. However, the future success of instructional programs will depend largely upon relevant staff development that places the emphasis and the focus squarely upon the classroom and the classroom teacher. In order to prepare educators to render a program that will be open, dynamic, and conducive

[2] Ben M. Harris. "In-Service Growth—The Essential Requirements." *Educational Leadership* 24(3): 257-60; December 1966.

to learning at all levels—central, area, and building—staff development should:

1. Encourage administrators and teachers to end social and economic segregation, both in the classroom and in school activities whenever and wherever it exists

2. Encourage educators to obtain active community participation in decision making

3. Encourage administrators and teachers to have more respect and maintain a high level of expectations for low-status students

4. Encourage the implementation of more meaningful planning, thereby improving instructional methods in the classroom by:
   a. Killing the lecture method
   b. Nurturing individual instructional techniques
   c. Building openness in the traditional classroom
   d. Being flexible in class requirements

5. Encourage and plan for administrators, teachers, and students to become directly involved in the planning and evaluation of educational programs

6. Encourage administrators and teachers to become more sensitive to racial and social differences

7. Encourage administrators and teachers to become builders of human relations in the classroom and school environment

8. Encourage educators at all levels to utilize their listening skills. Too often we spend far too much of our time talking when we should be listening. Students and parents have so much to say if only we could learn to listen.

We must remember that decentralization thus far is merely an effort to provide greater services at the building level, thereby improving the instructional program for children. We must also remember that changing the organizational structures of a school division does not necessarily change the millions of children who come to school daily. These children still bring with them their self-concepts, and whatever we do affects their opinions of themselves. Hence, there is a great need to provide meaningful staff development, especially for classroom teachers.

Chapter 16

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: WHAT'S TO BE DONE IN THE FUTURE?

Roy A. Edelfelt

MUCH OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT or in-service education is a waste of time, poorly organized, inadequately financed, and put on teachers by the people in control. It is hardly ever an extension of undergraduate preparation, that is, focused on the improvement of teaching. Much of it is forced. It appeals to the worst motives of teachers—more requirements, qualifications for salary, and legal sanction. In the university it is often a rip-off: huge sums of money are collected from teachers for in-service education only to be funneled into the institution's general fund or doctoral programs.

All this is by way of saying that there is great dissatisfaction with the current state of in-service education. Merely improving courses and workshops or getting more money is not sufficient. Sweeping changes are called for in all the dimensions of staff development—planning, involvement, purposes, substance, and funding. How this is to happen I don't quite know, but I'd like to share some thoughts on it with you.

It may be that now is the right time to move on new kinds of staff development programs. Undergraduate enrollments in colleges of education are down. Deans are looking for ways to keep staffs employed. In some institutions, the issue is mere survival. Those that need new clients might be unusually receptive to overtures from school people to work with them.

More than ever, parents want teachers to be current. School facul-

ties are more stable. What is done to improve school program has more chance of lasting because staff turnover has decreased. Preservice teacher education is receiving less emphasis and probably seems less of a priority since there are more teachers available than jobs. Teachers themselves want in-service education. The NEA discovered, for example, in pilot testing a teacher needs assessment instrument in various parts of the country, that one of the needs teachers everywhere identified was more and better in-service education.

Life in our society is in such rapid transition that almost everyone needs more in-service education to be able to deal with value conflicts and shifts in values, power, and decision-making responsibilities. Teachers, in particular, desperately need to address themselves to the meaning and impact of these shifts.

But to make sweeping changes in staff development will take more than good ideas. It will involve learning to handle political pressure as well as skills in taking collaborative action.

My job in this paper is to consider staff development in a futuristic context. It would be much easier to deal with the past: to review the major sources of evidence and suggest how we deal with the present. Reflection on the past, because it is part of our experience, will undoubtedly help us with the future. It is always difficult to make predictions in the present because it is so hard to comprehend. Often, it is even startling enough to keep us confused and off balance. But predicting the future is still more difficult. It is tempting— too tempting to resist— and something we all love to do. It is dangerous to try to predict the future because there is implied criticism of the present, and besides, it is almost impossible to do so with any certainty. Predictions leave you vulnerable to being wrong or to being proved a fool in a year or two. And we had better not take the exercise too seriously, because if we agonize too much about our inadequacies, the quality of life suffers.

As I develop some of my thoughts about the future, my intention is not to insult or offend with suggestions that conflict with your present way of doing things. It is rather to pose some possibilities. I'd like to take two tacks. One—a bit tongue-in-cheek but still rather serious in terms of my general assessment of what is going on—is to wonder whether we should not continue our haphazard approach to staff development. I have already said it is disorganized, piecemeal, patchwork. Maybe we ought to leave it that way, and let the teacher synthesize and draw together the kinds of things that have meaning for him or her.

Many of us have done it—through Saturday and evening courses, summer sessions, district workshops, and released time for study.

The plan has not been all bad; a lot of good has come from it. Teachers are obviously better today than they were 20 years ago. I judge from watching them that they work better with students. They are more articulate; they know their subjects better; they are politically more active and astute; they are courageous and more assertive; and they are more militant about what they believe in. So why not continue this haphazard approach? It is free to an extent. It satisfies certification requirements. It fits the system for degrees and salary schedules. And it does not cost the taxpayer a lot of money because the teachers usually pay for it.

You may think I am putting you on, but there are some real advantages in this haphazard approach. Teachers, if they make choices wisely, can find some rewarding courses and workshops. They can accumulate credit for travel. They can take sabbatical leave. But most important, they have considerable choice. They can put aside and ignore the poor experiences, but they can also internalize what they cherish and value and become what they decide to be. Unless we are prepared to develop some really different plans, why shouldn't we do more of the same better? I'm prompted to worry about this, because I think that is what we are going to do.

My second tack is to think about what might be changed or substituted and to hope and scheme for something better. These schemes and hopes take many forms. In one recent effort, I have been thinking about how the roles teachers assume could be identified and how the kinds of jobs teachers are expected to do could be supported and developed through in-service programs. With teachers and teacher organization staffs, I have identified eight teacher roles:

1. An individual professional
2. A teacher of students
3. A member of a faculty
4. A member of a school hierarchy
5. A liaison with parents and the public
6. A colleague of other professionals (people who work in other kinds of professional jobs in education, for example, on state committees and national councils)

7. A member of a teacher organization
8. A member of the teaching profession.

I am puzzling over the kind of staff development or in-service education that might be designed from the definitions of these roles to help teachers attain specific degrees of competence. Legitimizing and giving attention to each of these roles in staff development in terms of specified competencies would ensure better prepared professionals in our schools.

I first devised this scheme immodestly—which I shouldn't have done. My observation as I look back is that the job of the teacher is unmanageable if all those roles and competencies are included. At the least, pursuing their accomplishment will be very difficult unless we change the whole system. And maybe that is what I am suggesting. Maybe it is necessary to change the whole system in order for teachers to become really professional. In the process we could also respond positively to the call for accountability.

In thinking about the problem of how the degree of competency required in each role would be decided and by whom, it occurred to me that there is another dimension to this matter. Competency can be considered and measured fairly only if the conditions and circumstances operating in a particular situation are recognized. What needs to be added to the scheme? What, for example, is the degree of support from other staff people, from the administrator? What is the influence of student groups a teacher works with? What is the availability of resources? If all such conditions were spelled out, an equation might be developed recognizing the degree to which a competency can be manifested under the circumstances of a particular situation. Accountability then would be broadened to include all (or at least most) of the variables in play. Teachers would not be expected to do things for which they did not have the proper resources, conditions, or circumstances.

It seemed like a reasonable model on which to build a staff development program. But as I continued to turn this notion over in my mind, I became frightened about what someone might do with that list of roles and competencies when it gets into print. Will it suddenly have credibility far beyond anything it deserves? Will someone in power somewhere—an administrator, a supervisor, a curriculum director, a college dean, or even a legislator—decide that this plan ought to be

specified for all teachers because it is systematic and considers the conditions under which a teacher is to be evaluated?

You see what I have done. I have dared to think about and plan the way staff development might be built. But I may have created a monster if it gets accepted without sufficient examination, without any adaptation to local problems, or without involving those who will have to live with the system. That is where my worry comes in. Once again we could have someone putting something on teachers, administrators, and supervisors. That, you remember, was done with behavioral objectives, with the accountability movement, and with curriculum projects. None of these was imposed in a very constructive way, in a way that radically, or even adequately, changed schools; that either caused schools to become more humane or more intellectual or served to make school personnel feel more adequate. So, even though I am going to continue to think and write about the idea of roles, I am going to have to note in large red letters: *This is only a rough idea: look at it for local adaptation.* Another trickle-down approach is not what we need to make the teaching profession more mature. By the teaching profession, I mean all the people who are involved in education.

If the teaching profession could sketch the outlines of a plan for staff development in a general kind of way that everyone could live with and if we could muster the political influence to get it operable, such a plan might ensure the future professionalization of teaching. It could provide us the opportunity for assuming responsibility and at the same time move us a long way toward becoming a mature profession in a very real sense. The outline ought to do four things. It ought to establish the context. It ought to sketch the general frame. It ought to establish the governance. And it ought to recognize the impact of circumstances and conditions. A word about each of these.

By establishing the context, I mean recognizing and identifying the givens in a particular region, state, or local situation, making clear the context in which we work. It means spelling out what schools and teachers are all about, with a lot of help from parents and students. The context also includes other community forces, other agencies—certainly business, industry, and churches, but also the police, the courts, recreation, and other groups. There is, in addition, a psychological and a philosophical context, the sense of how people feel about themselves and each other, where people are along a reactionary-conservative-liberal-radical continuum, to what degree they are able to live with

such differences, and how they regard each other as a result of these differences. It may also be important to look at how the world outside influences the local context.

Sketching the general frame means clarifying a concept of staff development: where staff development fits into the general scheme of school and whether it is an integral and essential part of the activity of the school. Does it easily get discarded when budgets are cut? Is it primarily a building-level activity so that it is close enough to home to make a difference? What constitutes staff development? Is it only courses and workshops? Or is it a professional way in which teachers work intermittently with curriculum development, students, instructional strategies, and their own improvement? Is it something that is done on professional days, on the first Wednesday of each month, or twice a year at a conference?

The third task, establishing governance, is terribly important because it sets the process for how decisions are made and who makes them. Do individual teachers have a say? Can collective teacher opinion be expressed through the local teacher organization? Are there policies and procedures to support a staff development program? Are policies and procedures explicit? Are policies made public? Are candidates for new positions on a staff briefed about in-service expectations and their relationship to the whole program? Is a contract established at the point of hiring so that any new teacher realizes his or her responsibility in this area? Are distinctions made between legal certification requirements, local school district employment requirements, and concern for individual teacher development? How are they made clear? Is there the right to dissent, to be different, to have one's own style? Is due process ensured? These are all questions of governance, and they apply both locally and at the state level.

Lastly, we need to consider the impact of circumstances and conditions. Do parents, school board members, and administrators see the need for in-service education? Do they understand that if existing loads in teaching continue, not much more than a piecemeal effort is possible? Is money budgeted for staff development? Is in-service education a separate item, or is it part of the instruction and curriculum budget?

These four items can, of course, be detailed much more completely. But they do provide a frame or outline. Roles must be seen or considered within a framework so that there are parameters within which

to operate. The people involved will have an easier time deciding about roles, competence, and the substance and process of in-service education.

I would suggest that we take ideas wherever we can find them and use them in our own way. Education is one of the few areas where stealing is not only legal but encouraged. But I think we have to get to it. To become operational, all of this is going to take a lot more effort than is possible for any single group. It is going to take a lot of cooperation. It is going to require a cause that does not neglect vested interest. It will mean teacher organizations and other professional groups—such as ASCD, school administrators, higher education, state department personnel—getting together to plan the substance and the political action necessary to make staff development an integral part of school. I think teacher organizations are interested in such an effort. Interest and readiness may not be equal in all states, but that will come. The mood is fairly positive. Teachers have indicated through their organizations that they are tired of having in-service education laid on. Their organizations are ready to collaborate, to negotiate, to pressure for different kinds of in-service education.

I hope that ASCD, NEA, state education associations, and other groups will not let this opportunity slip and allow somebody else to legislate or decree that all teachers have to take a certain kind of program. In some states that is happening already. We have an opportunity to get the jump on this, to say: "Here's a plan we think is defensible. This is the way it works. These are the kinds of responsibilities we are going to assume. These are the kinds of resources we need." If this kind of thinking evolves, then I think we have got a collective concern for a larger concept of staff development, one that will affect not only all teachers and other educators but the very quality of education that is offered to young people. Congress will respond to it. The Office of Education will respond in ways additional to the Teacher Corps. (As you know, that legislation has been amended to focus on the in-service education of experienced teachers.)

Staff development is only beginning to come into its own as a vital and dynamic part of school programs. I hope these ideas will contribute to furthering some constructive and creative approaches.

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